

Investigation on the Relationship Between
Location of Fretted Note on Guitar Neck and
Note Intonation Error.

IB Physics Extended Essay

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1 Introduction

1.1 Personal observation

In the guitar community, when comparing the build quality of different electric guitars, one of the key determining points is a guitar's ability to keep good intonation. Intonation refers to the accuracy of the instrument's pitch across all frets. Slight deviations in intonation can have a significant impact on the overall sound quality, especially when playing chords, as multiple slightly-out-of-tune notes together can clash and produce muffled, discordant sounding chords, most notably when playing high up the neck (above 11th – 12th fret). This problem has been a topic of debate in many guitar forums online, with a lot of hypotheses on why it happens and discussions on how to set a perfect intonation. There has been extremely limited formal studies of the subject, the two most notable ones came from the works of classical guitar luthiers ¹ ([Bartolinis, 1982] and [Byers, 1996]), the former of which is considered seminal, yet seems to have been lost on the internet. In terms of physics investigation there have been general basic studies on intonation yet very little detailed analysis [Varieschi, 2010]. The model used in both [Byers, 1996] and [Varieschi, 2010] are derived from the original model by [Bartolinis, 1982], but I think they do not reflect the real world behavior really well. Therefore, in this investigation I want to develop a different model to explore how intonation works, what causes intonation

¹Craftsmen who build or repair stringed instruments

problems, and propose some solutions to achieve good intonation.

1.2 Background information & Theory

Basic model of guitar strings and frets

Figure 1 shows the most simple model of an electric guitar, consisting of a steel string raised at two ends by the bridge and the nut. The end behind the nut is wound around a tuning peg used to adjust the string tension and tune the string to match a frequency. This is stretched over the body and the fretboard with raised metal frets, and a pickup - an electromagnet to capture string vibrations turning them into electrical signals. The fret distances are carefully calculated and accurately placed along the fretboard length, so that when a string is pressed down on a fret, the fret will act as a stopper and change the length of the vibrating segment, creating different frequencies to make other notes in a scale.

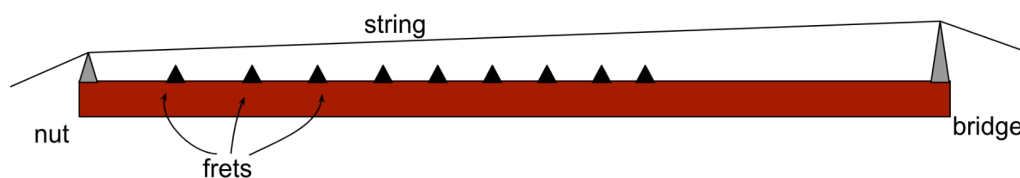


Figure 1: A simplified model of the electric guitar I will use. The pickup is not shown.

How the guitar string and frets work

When a string is plucked, it will create travelling waves on the string that reflect at both ends, creating standing waves. The frequency of the wave with the longest wavelength is the fundamental frequency, also called the first harmonic. This is the lowest frequency, and there will usually be other higher harmonics that when combined create the characteristic timbre of the electric guitar. The fundamental frequency f_0 of a string can be determined by Mersenne's law:

$$f_0 = \frac{1}{2l_s} \sqrt{\frac{T}{\mu}} \quad (1)$$

where l_s is the vibrating length of the string, T is the tension, and μ is the linear density of the string (mass of string per unit length).

[Steinhaus, 1999]

When the string is fretted and plucked, its vibrating length changes, changing the frequency. Figure 2 shows a model of the string pressed down on fret n . The distance from the bridge to the fret then is l_n .

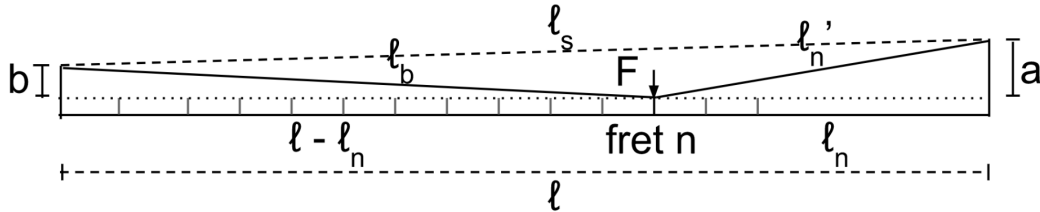


Figure 2: A simplified model of the fretted string

In Western music, the ubiquitous musical system is the twelve-tone equal temperament (12-TET) system, where an octave is divided into 12 equally spaced notes on a logarithmic scale [Nov]. The ratio is thus equal to $\sqrt[12]{2}$; therefore, to position the frets correlating to the notes, the scale length² l needs to be divided into powers of $\sqrt[12]{2}$. To calculate the position of each fret, luthiers traditionally use this formula. [Mottola]

$$l_n = \frac{l}{2^{\frac{n}{12}}} \quad (2)$$

Cause of intonation issues

Intonation deviation happens when there is a difference between the frequency that we expect when we fret down on a note and the actual frequency that we get.

This is because luthiers calculated the positioning of the frets with a basic, simplified model, assuming the string length is equal to the scale length ($l_s = l$), the string doesn't stretch, and ignoring the effects of the nut and bridge; whereas in reality, the string length is slightly longer than the scale length (due to the nut and bridge's height difference), and when the string is pressed the length will stretch a little, slightly increasing the tension.

From Figure 2, using Mersenne's Law, the fundamental frequency of the

²Distance between the nut and the bridge

string f_0 according to the luthier's model is:

$$f_0 = \frac{1}{2l} \sqrt{\frac{T}{\mu}} \quad (3)$$

And the expected frequency f_n at the n^{th} fret is:

$$f_n = \frac{1}{2l_n} \sqrt{\frac{T}{\mu}} \quad (4)$$

However, in real life the string doesn't follow this perfect simplified model, so physically the initial frequency f_0 is governed by:

$$f_0 = \frac{1}{2l_s} \sqrt{\frac{T_a}{\mu}} \quad (5)$$

Where l_s is the actual length of the whole vibrating string, and T_a is the actual tension on the string. Notice this f_0 is the same as in the luthier's model because this is the frequency the string is tuned to. However, once the string is fretted the intonation will deviate. The observed frequency f'_n at the n^{th} fret is:

$$f'_n = \frac{1}{2l'_n} \sqrt{\frac{T_a + \Delta T}{\mu}} \quad (6)$$

Here l'_n is the length of the vibrating segment, and there is a ΔT term added to the tension because the fretting force causes the total tension to increase slightly.

This difference between f_n and f'_n is the intonation deviation, Δf :

$$\Delta f = f'_n - f_n \quad (7)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\mu}} \left(\frac{\sqrt{T_a + \Delta T}}{l'_n} - \frac{\sqrt{T}}{l_n} \right) \quad (8)$$

From Figure 2 it is easy to see $l'_n = \sqrt{a^2 + l_n^2}$:

$$\Delta f = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\mu}} \left(\frac{\sqrt{T_a + \Delta T}}{\sqrt{a^2 + l_n^2}} - \frac{\sqrt{T}}{l_n} \right) \quad (9)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\mu}} \left(\frac{\sqrt{T_a} \sqrt{1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T_a}}}{l_n \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{a}{l_n}\right)^2}} - \frac{\sqrt{T}}{l_n} \right) \quad (10)$$

Also from (3) and (5):

$$\sqrt{T_a} = \sqrt{T} \left(\frac{l_s}{l} \right) \quad (11)$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta f = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\mu}} \left(\frac{\sqrt{T} \left(\frac{l_s}{l}\right) \sqrt{1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T_a}}}{l_n \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{a}{l_n}\right)^2}} - \frac{\sqrt{T}}{l_n} \right) \quad (12)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2l_n} \sqrt{\frac{T}{\mu}} \left(\left(\frac{l_s}{l} \right) \left(1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T_a} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(1 + \left(\frac{a}{l_n} \right)^2 \right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} - 1 \right) \quad (13)$$

From Figure 2: $l_s = \sqrt{(a-b)^2 + l^2}$, so:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{l_s}{l} &= \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{a-b}{l}\right)^2} \\ \Rightarrow \Delta f &= \frac{1}{2l_n} \sqrt{\frac{T}{\mu}} \left(\left(1 + \left(\frac{a-b}{l}\right)^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(1 + \frac{\Delta T}{T_a}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(1 + \left(\frac{a}{l_n}\right)^2\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} - 1 \right) \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

Since $a-b \ll l$, $\Delta T \ll T_a$, $a \ll l_n$, we can approximate the expression to first order using the binomial approximation [Špakula, 2011], expand and simplify, only keeping terms up to first order overall.

$$\Delta f \approx \frac{1}{2l_n} \sqrt{\frac{T}{\mu}} \left(\left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{a-b}{l}\right)^2\right) \left(1 + \frac{\Delta T}{2T_a}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{a}{l_n}\right)^2\right) - 1 \right) \quad (15)$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{2l_n} \sqrt{\frac{T}{\mu}} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{a-b}{l}\right)^2 + \frac{\Delta T}{2T_a} - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{a}{l_n}\right)^2 - 1 \right) \quad (16)$$

$$= \frac{1}{4l_n} \sqrt{\frac{T}{\mu}} \left(\left(\frac{a-b}{l}\right)^2 + \frac{\Delta T}{T_a} - \left(\frac{a}{l_n}\right)^2 \right) \quad (17)$$

Tension of the guitar string

When the guitar string is under tension T_a , it causes the string to stretch an amount Δl_0 as compared to the unstretched length, which is the same as the effective vibrating length l_s . This relationship can be determined as:

$$T_a = \frac{AY\Delta l_0}{l_s} \quad (18)$$

Where A is the cross-sectional area of the string, and Y is the Young's modulus of the material. [Polak et al., 2018]

When we press down on it, the whole string stretches accordingly by a small amount Δl . Assuming there is no friction on the point of contact, the tension in the whole string increases by an amount ΔT :

$$T_a + \Delta T = \frac{AY(\Delta l_0 + \Delta l)}{l_s}$$

Thus the relationship between ΔT and Δl is:

$$\Delta T = \frac{AY\Delta l}{l_s} \quad (19)$$

It is very hard to observe and measure Δl directly, so we can try rewriting it in terms of other variables. From Figure 2,

$$\Delta l = (l_b + l'_n) - l_s \quad (20)$$

$$= \sqrt{(l - l_n)^2 + b^2} + \sqrt{l_n^2 + a^2} - l_s \quad (21)$$

$$= (l - l_n) \left(1 + \left(\frac{b}{l - l_n} \right)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} + l_n \left(1 + \left(\frac{a}{l_n} \right)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} - l_s \quad (22)$$

Once again, we can approximate this to the first order since $a \ll l_n$ and

$b \ll l - l_n$:

$$\Delta l \approx (l - l_n) \left(1 + \frac{b^2}{2(l - l_n)^2} \right) + l_n \left(1 + \frac{a^2}{2l_n^2} \right) - l_s \quad (23)$$

$$= (l - l_n) + \frac{b^2}{2(l - l_n)} + l_n + \frac{a^2}{2l_n} - l_s \quad (24)$$

$$= \frac{b^2}{2(l - l_n)} + \frac{a^2}{2l_n} - (l_s - l) \quad (25)$$

From Figure 2, we can expand and approximate l_s up to first order

$(a - b \ll l)$:

$$l_s = \sqrt{l^2 + (a - b)^2} \quad (26)$$

$$= l \left(1 + \left(\frac{a - b}{l} \right)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (27)$$

$$\approx l \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{a - b}{l} \right)^2 \right) \quad (28)$$

$$= l + \frac{(a - b)^2}{2l} \quad (29)$$

Substituting this into (25), (19) and (17):

$$\Delta l = \frac{b^2}{2(l - l_n)} + \frac{a^2}{2l_n} - \frac{(a - b)^2}{2l} \quad (30)$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta T = \frac{AY}{2l_s} \left(\frac{b^2}{l - l_n} + \frac{a^2}{l_n} - \frac{(a - b)^2}{l} \right) \quad (31)$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta f = \frac{1}{4l_n} \sqrt{\frac{T}{\mu}} \left(\frac{AY}{2l_s T_a} \left(\frac{b^2}{l - l_n} + \frac{a^2}{l_n} - \frac{(a - b)^2}{l} \right) + \left(\frac{a - b}{l} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{a}{l_n} \right)^2 \right) \quad (32)$$

We need to write $l_s T_a$ in terms of l , T and other variables. From (11) and (27), once again using a first order approximation since $a - b \ll l$:

$$T_a = T \left(\frac{l_s}{l} \right)^2 \quad (33)$$

$$\implies l_s T_a = T \frac{l_s^3}{l^2} \quad (34)$$

$$= T \frac{\left(l \left(1 + \left(\frac{a-b}{l} \right)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right)^3}{l^2} \quad (35)$$

$$= T l \left(1 + \left(\frac{a-b}{l} \right)^2 \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \quad (36)$$

$$\approx T l \left(1 + \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{a-b}{l} \right)^2 \right) \quad (37)$$

Final expression relating frequency change and position of fret

Finally, we can substitute (37) into (32) to get the expression between the intonation shift Δf and the fret position l_n

$$\Delta f = \frac{1}{4l_n} \sqrt{\frac{T}{\mu}} \left(\frac{AY}{2Tl \left(1 + \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{a-b}{l} \right)^2 \right)} \left(\frac{b^2}{l - l_n} + \frac{a^2}{l_n} - \frac{(a-b)^2}{l} \right) + \left(\frac{a-b}{l} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{a}{l_n} \right)^2 \right) \quad (38)$$

From (3) we get

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{\frac{T}{\mu}} &= 2l f_0 \\ \implies T &= 4\mu l^2 f_0^2 \end{aligned}$$

μ is simply the mass per unit length of the string:

$$\mu = \frac{m}{l_s} = \frac{\rho V}{l_s} = \frac{\rho l_s A}{l_s} = \rho A$$

where m is the mass of the vibrating string section, V is its volume, and ρ is the volumetric density of the material. Therefore:

$$T = 4\rho A l^2 f_0^2$$

Substituting all this into (38) we get the final expression between the intonation shift Δf and the fret position l_n relating all our known variables:

$$\Delta f = \frac{l f_0}{2 l_n} \left(\frac{Y}{8 \rho l^3 f_0^2 (1 + \frac{3}{2} (\frac{a-b}{l})^2)} \left(\frac{b^2}{l - l_n} + \frac{a^2}{l_n} - \frac{(a-b)^2}{l} \right) + \frac{(a-b)^2}{l^2} - \frac{a^2}{l_n^2} \right) \quad (39)$$

2 Experiment

From the final expression relating Δf and l_n , knowing all other constants I can plot the graph for this. Δf is the dependent variable, and l_n is the independent variable. I expect the intonation difference Δf to be higher when the fretting distance is closer to the bridge (smaller values of l_n), and lower closer to the nut, in the first few frets (larger l_n). The general shape of the graph can be compared with my expectation as a sanity check. It is impossible to linearize the equation, therefore I will have to resort to

collecting the data, plotting the graph, then confirming the relationship using a regression method to see how well the data fits the model.

The choice of guitar I will use for this experiment is a Fender Stratocaster. I pick this guitar because there is a wealth of information available on it, making it easier to find data to support my research or to compare my results to other studies, and ensuring ease of replicability of the experiment.

The choice of string I will use is a G string from D'Addario's set of Nickel Wound Regular Light Gauge - EXL110-10P that I have. I choose the G string because it is the thickest plain unwound string in the set. This is because from my experience the thicker strings will make the effects of the intonation shift more noticeable and easier to measure for the experiment.

2.1 Determining the constants

From equation (39), the constants I need to determine are f_0 , ρ , Y , a , b and l .

- Standard scale length l for a Fender Stratocaster is 25.5 inches (0.648 m) (3s.f) [Nemeroff, 2023]. I can adjust the bridge position so that the scale length matches this value.
- Initial frequency f_0 can be adjusted and measured directly. The frequency we aim for is the frequency of G string on the guitar for a standard A440 tuning system, G_3 at 196.00 Hz [Suits, 1998]

- Young's modulus Y depends on the specifications of the string material. Nearly all electric guitar strings follow the ASTM-A228 manufacturing standards for steel music wire, and the value of Y is 210 GPa (2.10×10^{11} Pa). [ASTM A228 Steel (UNS K08500)]
- ρ , the density of the string material, is determined according to the ASTM-A228 standards: $\rho = 7.80 \times 10^3 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$. [ASTM A228 Steel (UNS K08500)]
- a and b : it is very hard to measure these directly, as they are the distance from the top of the nut and bridge to the top of the frets, not the nut and bridge heights. Therefore, I can only set up the guitar according to recommended values and calculate them indirectly afterwards. There are a lot of resources online on how to set up the guitar. I choose to follow the instructions by Stewmac [StewMac.com], a reputable online guitar retailer, and take the average value of the action³ for the 1st fret to be 0.016" (0.406 mm) and 12th fret to be 0.070" (1.78 mm). I adjust the bridge height and file down or shim up the nut accordingly to match these values. From there I can calculate the values of a and b as illustrated by Figure 3:

³Height between bottom of the string and top of the fret

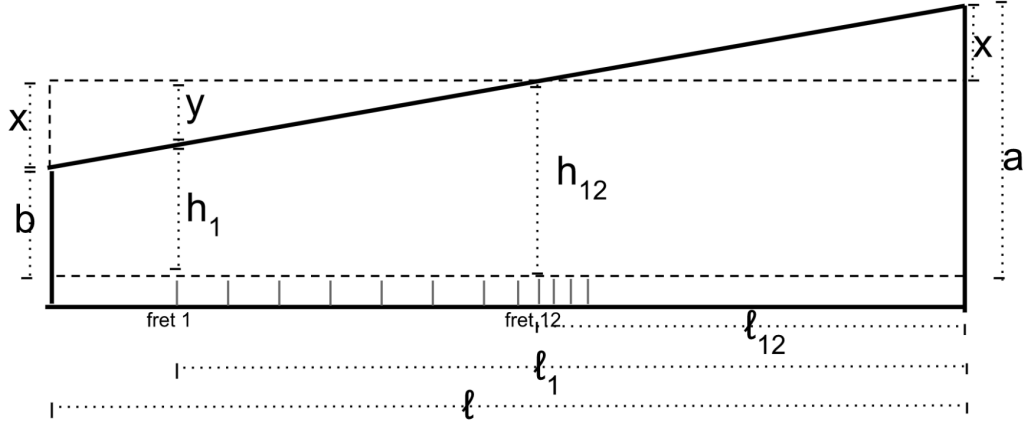


Figure 3: Diagram to calculate values of a and b

Since fret 12th is exactly in the middle of l ($l_{12} = \frac{l}{2} = \frac{0.648}{2} = 0.324$ m) we get:

$$a = h_{12} + x$$

$$b = h_{12} - x$$

From the luthier formula (2):

$$\begin{aligned} l_1 &= \frac{l}{2^{\frac{1}{12}}} \\ &= \frac{0.648}{2^{\frac{1}{12}}} \\ &= 0.612 \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

and we also get the ratio in Figure 3

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{x}{y} &= \frac{l - l_{12}}{l_1 - l_{12}} \\
x &= y \frac{l - l_{12}}{l_1 - l_{12}} \\
&= (h_{12} - h_1) \frac{l - l_{12}}{l_1 - l_{12}} \\
&= (1.78 - 0.406) \cdot 10^{-3} \cdot \frac{0.648 - 0.324}{0.612 - 0.324} \\
&= 1.55 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$a = 1.78 + 1.55 = 3.33 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}$$

$$b = 1.78 - 1.55 = 1.30 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}$$

2.2 Apparatus

- 1 Fender Stratocaster style guitar
- 1 17-gauge plain unwound steel G string
- 1 guitar capo
- 1 guitar pick

2.3 Process

1. Setting up the guitar. I use the instructions by Stewmac
[StewMac.com]
2. Connect the guitar to frequency measuring software. I use my audio interface to connect the guitar to my laptop, and the software I use is Visual Analyzer 2020 [VA2020 Website]. I choose this because it supports real-time Fast Fourier Transform to convert guitar signals into frequency spectrum, and can be configured to provide results with high accuracy.
3. Measure f_0 by plucking the string with no capo on.
4. Pluck it 5 times with the pick, changing the plucking position each time as numbered in Figure 4 (trial 1: above neck pickup, trial 2: between neck and middle, trial 3: above middle, trial 4: between middle and bridge, trial 5: above bridge pickup). Record the peak frequency (highest dB) for each pick (Figure 6).
5. Put capo on 7th fret and repeat step 4. Ensure the edge of the capo sits right on top of the fret and pushing the string directly downwards. (Figure 5)
6. Repeat step 5 from fret 8 up to fret 16. I cannot go higher because this is where the neck meets the body making it impossible to put the capo.

Photos of experimental set up



Figure 4: My experimental setup. I position the guitar neck outside the table for ease of access to the capo. The numbers correspond to plucking positions



Figure 5: Close up of capo placement. This ensures consistent pressure and contact with the string and fret

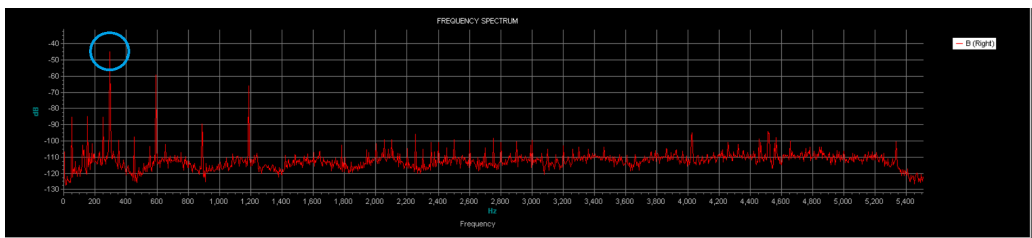


Figure 6: Frequency spectrum of a note in Visual Analyzer. The peak frequency is circled. This can be zoomed in to accurately read peak value

2.4 Tables of results

Table of raw data

Fret number	Frequency (Hz)				
	Trial 1	Trial 2	Trial 3	Trial 4	Trial 5
0	195.82	195.82	196.49	196.49	196.47
7	294.06	294.06	294.07	294.06	294.07
8	310.96	310.96	312.31	311.67	312.31
9	330.41	330.41	330.40	329.74	330.41
10	349.81	350.43	349.81	349.81	350.43
11	370.73	371.39	371.39	370.76	370.72
12	393.20	393.21	393.20	393.20	393.20
13	416.49	416.50	416.49	416.50	417.15
14	440.87	441.54	442.21	441.54	442.22
15	468.18	468.18	468.16	468.18	468.18
16	496.38	495.98	495.99	496.58	496.38

Table 1: Raw collected data

The frequencies are taken up to 2d.p because this is the smallest the software can measure.

Table of processed data

Fret number	Fret distance (m)	Avg frequency (Hz)	Note	Standard frequency (Hz)	Δf (Hz)	Abs. unc. Δf (Hz)
0	0.648	196.22	G3	196.00		
7	0.432	294.06	D4	293.66	0.40	0.005
8	0.408	311.64	D#4	311.13	0.51	0.7
9	0.385	330.27	E4	329.63	0.65	0.3
10	0.364	350.05	F4	349.23	0.83	0.3
11	0.343	371.00	F#4	369.99	1.01	0.3
12	0.324	393.20	G4	392.00	1.20	0.005
13	0.306	416.63	G#4	415.30	1.32	0.3
14	0.289	441.67	A4	440.00	1.67	0.7
15	0.272	468.17	A#4	466.16	2.01	0.01
16	0.257	496.27	B4	493.88	2.38	0.3

Table 2: Table of processed data

Fret distance is l_n , calculated from fret number with the luthier equation (2). The uncertainty of l_n for every point is 0.0005 m because it is calculated from l , which is measured with a meter rule whose smallest division is 0.001 m.

2.5 Analysis of results

Graphs

After collecting the data, I can take the average value of $f_0 = 196.22$ Hz as the constant value of f_0 for Equation (39) and plot the graph relating Δf and l_n . The range of the graph corresponds with the distance between the nut and the highest fret of the guitar to the bridge, where the fretboard is.

My guitar has 22 frets, so the position of the final fret is

$$l_{22} = \frac{0.648}{2^{\frac{22}{12}}} = 0.182 \text{ m}$$

Therefore the range I will be graphing is $\{0.182 \leq l_n \leq 0.648\}$. Below is the general form of the graph.

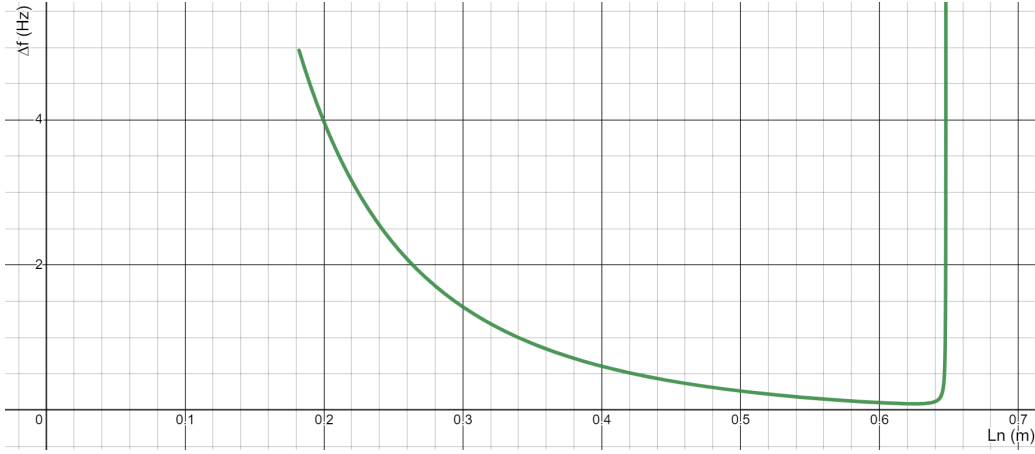


Figure 7: General form of the graph without data points

From the graph, we can see it matches with my expectation. Overall Δf is lower for larger l_n (further from the bridge, lower frets), and increases when l_n is smaller (higher frets, closer to the bridge). Noticeably, the function has no zero in this range, meaning everywhere you fret on the fretboard there will still be a bit of intonation error making it impossible to achieve perfect intonation.

Observing the graph, we can see there is a vertical asymptote at $l_n = l$.

Mathematically this comes from equation (39) when the denominator of the

terms inside brackets is equal to 0 ($l - l_n = 0$) (there is another asymptote at $l = 0$, but this is outside our range). At $\lim_{l_n \rightarrow l^-} \Delta f$ approaches $+\infty$. This is physically impossible. My explanation of this is because of the error terms in our first order approximation. When $l_n \approx l$ (very close to the nut), $l - l_n$ is very small and on a comparable order to the nut height b , the approximation at (23) no longer holds because the higher order error terms will take over, and the function will no longer accurately model the behavior of the string. My physical interpretation of this phenomenon $\Delta f \rightarrow +\infty$ is because, if you try to fret very close to the nut, the "breaking angle" (angle between the fret and the string) θ of the string in Figure 8 gets very large. Therefore, the amount of force downwards needed to counteract the tension to depress the string is much higher, which also increases the tension of the string accordingly, which in turn requires an even larger force to fret down, increasing the tension even more, etc. This behavior of the tension causes the frequency to rise asymptotically the closer you get to the nut. This will continue until the tension in the string is too large and the string breaks. However, this doesn't happen in reality because the first fret is at $l_n = 0.612$, and you cannot fret closer to the nut than this (albeit for fretless instruments you can go as close as physically possible until the string breaks).

To analyze the graph further I can take the first derivative of this with respect to l_n . The first derivative has a zero at $l_n = 0.625$ m corresponding to $\Delta f = 0.087$ Hz. This is a minimum, indicating that at this point there is



Figure 8: Breaking angle θ of string when fretting near the nut

the least intonation error. The closest fret to this is fret 1, at $l_n = 0.612$ m. This shows that on the whole fretboard, the intonation error is the smallest at fret 1, and increases as you go higher up the fretboard. The local maximum is at the last fret, fret 22 at $l_n = 0.182$ m. Here the Δf is 4.96 Hz, which is a relatively large intonation error.

Also from the graph, the predicted Δf at fret 12 ($l_n = 0.324$ m) is 1.15 Hz. This deviation can be put in terms of cents, which is defined as the difference between the frequencies of two consecutive notes divided into 100 equal parts [Suits, 1998]. Therefore:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{1 cent above D4} &= \frac{D\#4 - D4}{100} \\ &= \frac{311.33 - 293.66}{100} = 0.177 \text{ Hz} \end{aligned}$$

(Note values taken from [Suits, 1998])

So 1.15 Hz is equivalent to $\frac{1.15}{0.177} \approx 6\text{-}7$ cents sharp. The smallest difference in pitch human can discern is around 5-6 cents [Loeffler, 2006], and this possibly explains why the intonation error gets noticeable from fret 12 and upwards.

Now I can plot a graph with the data points and perform a goodness-of-fit test to determine the correlation.

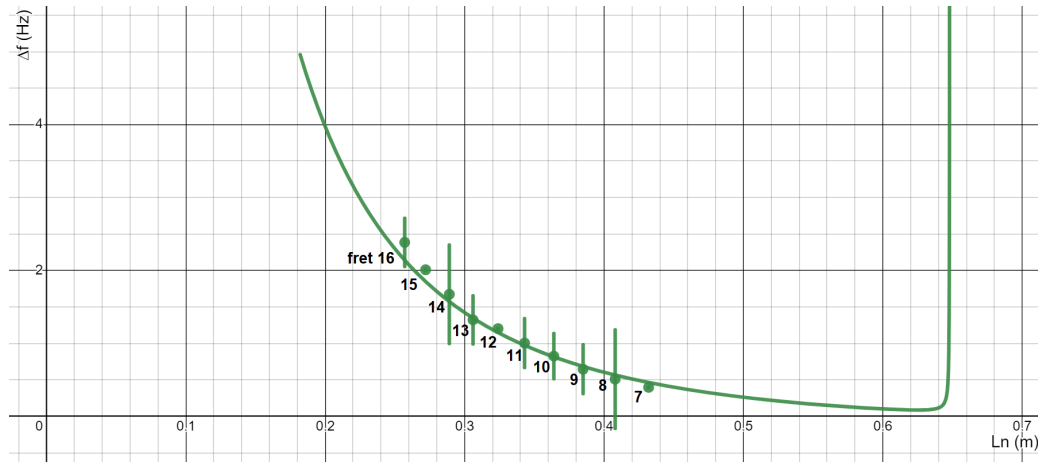


Figure 9: The original curve and the data points with error bars

Observation & Analysis

From Figure 9 we see the data points fit the function quite well and follow the general shape of the curve. The horizontal error bars are too small to see. The curve passes through all vertical error bars except for the data point at fret 15, which is still close to the curve but error bars are too small. Noticeably, although data points of lower frets stay pretty close to the curve, for higher frets (around frets 14-16) Δf are relatively higher than the predicted values. One possible cause is due to the capo placement. Because of the larger neck shape around this position where it connects with the guitar body, it is rather difficult to place the capo squarely on the fret and pressing directly down on the string. This might cause it to pull

the string a bit sideways or push it down behind the fret, increasing the tension and making the frequency go up.

The goodness-of-fit test I will perform on the data is the Standard Error of the Estimate (SEOE).

$$\text{SEOE} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (Y - Y')^2}{n}}$$

Where Y is the actual value of the data, Y' is the value from the function, and n is the number of data points. [Lane]

The correlation value of SEOE is the standard deviation of the residual values. The closer this standard deviation is to 0, the lower the errors and the better the function fits the data (higher correlation). I choose this test because it returns a normalized result and provides a clear measure on the quality of the correlation. Performing the test on the processed data points of Δf and l_n , I get a value of $\text{SEOE} = 0.105$. This is quite close to 0, indicating a low deviation of errors, so I believe the data fits the model well.

3 Conclusion & Evaluation

In conclusion, the higher the fretting position, the more intonation error there is. The relationship is not a linear one but quite complicated and can be modelled with equation (39). By plotting the data and performing the

goodness-of-fit test, it reasonably confirms the validity of the equation.

By choosing this simplified model, it makes the calculations easier and creates a useful approximation model. However, this doesn't take into account several factors in reality that can affect the intonation. For example, the contact surface of a capo on the string is quite large compared to a human finger; therefore the string might deform more when using the capo, increasing the tension and frequency. Also, normally guitarists don't press down directly on the fret like the capo, but slightly behind. This can depress the string more and lead to higher intonation errors. Another factor is the guitar neck isn't always rigid and straight but sometimes slightly bowed, either from the tension of the strings or from the player's setup, which can also affect the intonation. An assumption I made is the fretting point on the string would have no friction, thus tension will increase evenly throughout the string, but in reality the finger or capo would have a small amount of friction that can affect the result. Another limitation of the model is it only applies to plain unwound steel strings, so it can only be used for the highest 3 strings on an electric guitar, but for the other 3 wound strings we would need a different model.

An observation I can make from equation (39) is that it is not dependent on the string gauge I use. However, this conflicts with my experience, because when playing I would notice the thicker G string would exhibit more intonation shift than the thinner high E string. To investigate this, I

repeat the experiment with my thinner B string and E string, tuning them to their standard frequencies ($B_3 : 246.94\text{Hz}$ and $E_4 : 329.63\text{Hz}$). The collected and processed data for these are in the Appendix.

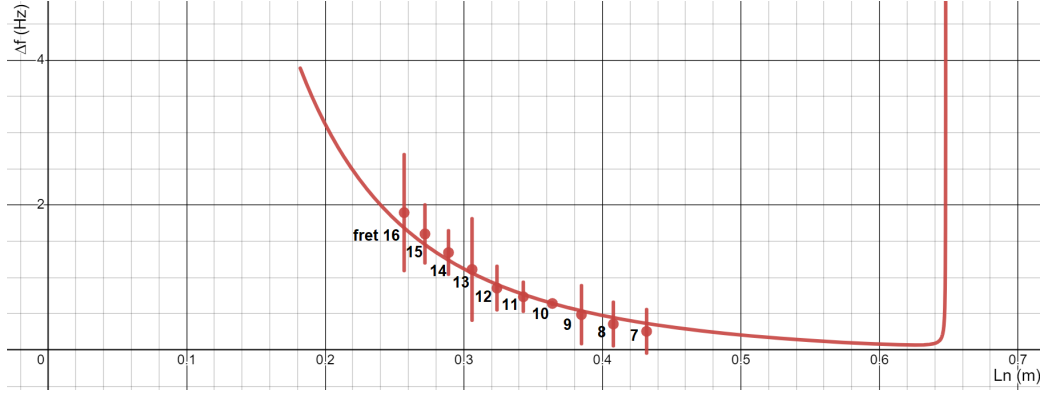


Figure 10: Curve for B string with data points and error bars

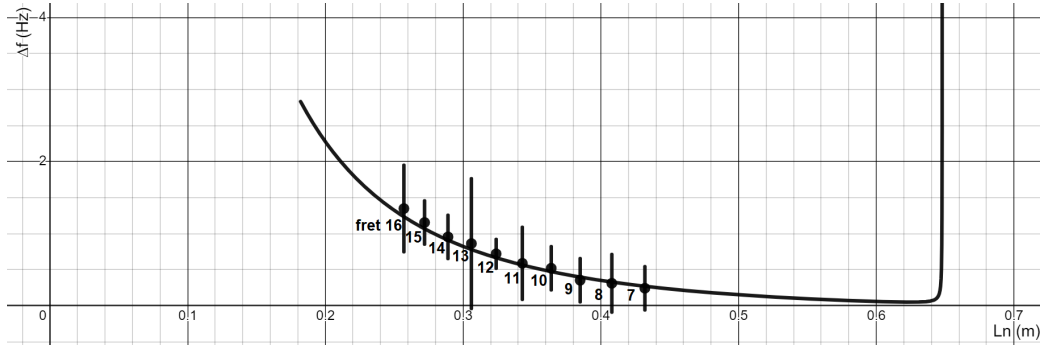


Figure 11: Curve for E string with data points and error bars

Overall we see that the graphs of B and E strings are successively lower, meaning the intonation deviation on those strings are less, showing that my observation is correct. I believe this is not because of the different string gauges but because the strings have different f_0 . We can also make some observations; most noticeably, data points for higher frets are slightly

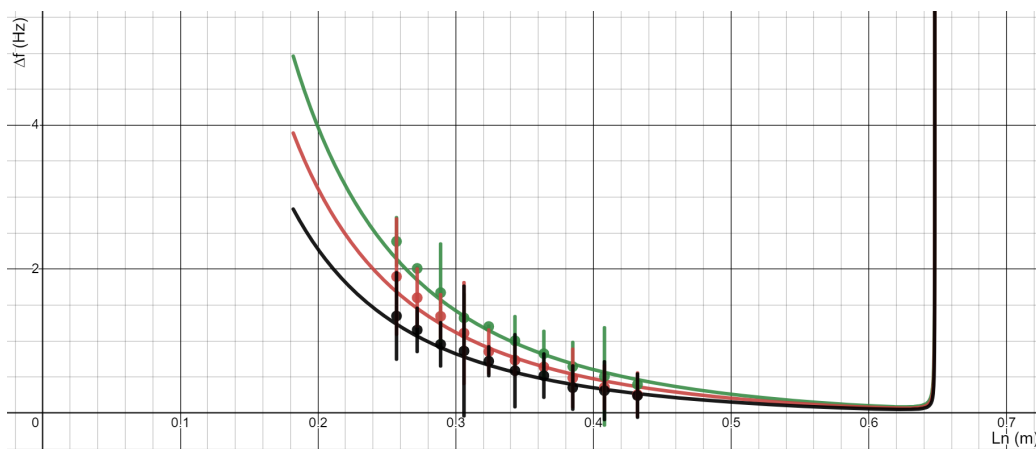


Figure 12: Curve for all 3 strings with data points

higher than predicted by the curve. This is the same trend observed with the original data of the G string, and I believe the cause is the same: the capo not fretting directly down on the string but slightly pushing the string sideways. Also, we can see the error bars generally are smallest for the thickest G string, and biggest for the thinnest E string. This means there is an increase in variance of the frequency for trials at each fret position for thinner strings. This might be because thin strings are more likely to slip a little sideways under the capo when plucked, meaning for the same fret, there will be a slightly different frequency for each pick, although the capo is never moved. It is also noticeable that there is a large error bar at fret 13 and 16 for the B and E strings. Upon closer inspection of the guitar, it seems like the frets at these positions are quite worn down. This might cause the string to slip more under the capo, explaining the large error bar. We also see that the error bars for different strings overlap quite

significantly, meaning the results might not be statistically significant, therefore we need to find ways to increase the precision of the measurements to further confirm the relationship. Some improvements I can suggest is to use a stronger capo to minimize slipping or level the guitar frets before carrying out the experiment. We can also try to control the plucking with some mechanism that can consistently deliver the same force to the string to avoid pushing the string sideways too much.

Guitar players can take this into account when choosing strings. For example, players with a heavier playing style shouldn't choose light gauge strings, because thinner strings with lower resistance are more likely to be pushed sideways rather than directly down on the fret, which will cause intonation shifts.

From the graph of the equation relating Δf and l_n we can also evaluate the effects of changing other variables on the shape of the curve. It is impossible to have zero intonation deviation, but I can try to minimize this error. I notice the variable that has the most effect on the graph is a , the vertical distance between top of the bridge and the frets. Simply reducing the value of a by around 1.3 mm, bringing it from 3.33 mm down to 2 mm (2×10^{-3} m) is enough to reduce the intonation shift at fret 16 down to around 1.8 Hz (Figure 13), which would be equivalent to $\frac{1.8}{C5-B4} \cdot 100 = \frac{1.8}{523.25-493.88} \cdot 100 \approx 6$ cents, which is almost unnoticeable to the human ear. [Loeffler, 2006]

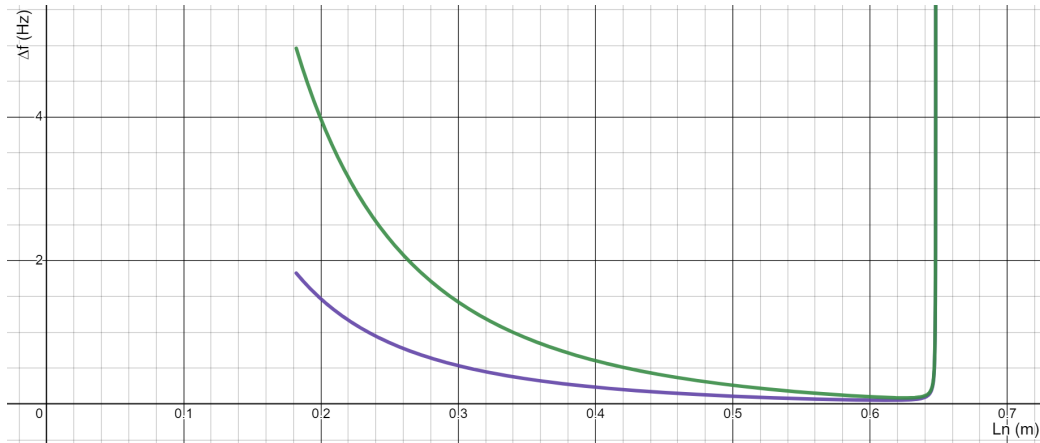


Figure 13: Comparing before (green) and after changing value of a (purple)

So a lower string action would be better for intonation. Guitar manufacturers as well as guitarists can take this into account when setting up their guitars to reduce the intonation error. However, reducing the bridge height too much will cause buzzing of the string, where the string hit against other frets when it is plucked and vibrating. This will reduce the quality of the tone and might even lead to more intonation error. Therefore, a careful trial and error approach is needed when adjusting for a good intonation.

Overall from the investigation we see that the intonation of a guitar string is very complicated and affected by a lot of different factors. We cannot eliminate it completely, but there are some things we can do to control it and minimize intonation deviations, such as using thicker strings and having a low action.

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Appendix A Raw and Processed Data for B and E Strings

Fret number	Frequency (Hz)				
	Trial 1	Trial 2	Trial 3	Trial 4	Trial 5
0	247.03	247.03	247.20	247.14	247.03
7	391.87	392.50	391.87	392.50	392.50
8	415.57	415.57	416.03	415.33	415.81
9	441.02	440.49	440.49	440.23	440.23
10	466.81	466.81	466.81	466.81	466.83
11	494.75	494.75	494.42	494.42	494.75
12	524.00	524.55	524.00	524.01	524.00
13	555.56	555.56	554.98	554.98	556.31
14	588.61	588.48	589.07	588.61	588.62
15	623.56	623.56	624.35	623.56	624.28
16	660.56	660.56	660.56	661.95	662.12

Figure 14: Raw data for B string

Fret number	Fret distance (m)	Avg frequency (Hz)	Note	Standard frequency (Hz)	Δf (Hz)	Abs. unc. Δf (Hz)
0	0.648	247.09	B3	246.94		
7	0.432	392.25	G4	392.00	0.258	0.3
8	0.408	415.66	G#4	415.30	0.359	0.3
9	0.385	440.49	A4	440.00	0.488	0.4
10	0.364	466.81	A#4	466.16	0.642	0.01
11	0.343	494.62	B4	493.88	0.735	0.2
12	0.324	524.11	C5	523.25	0.855	0.3
13	0.306	555.48	C#5	554.37	1.112	0.7
14	0.289	588.68	D5	587.33	1.346	0.3
15	0.272	623.86	D#5	622.25	1.603	0.4
16	0.257	661.15	E5	659.26	1.897	0.8

Figure 15: Processed data for B string

Fret number	Frequency (Hz)				
	Trial 1	Trial 2	Trial 3	Trial 4	Trial 5
0	329.70	329.70	329.86	329.86	329.86
7	493.87	493.88	494.23	494.23	494.45
8	523.27	523.27	524.00	523.27	524.00
9	555.04	555.03	554.80	554.37	554.37
10	587.95	587.53	587.53	588.11	588.11
11	622.19	622.21	623.15	623.15	622.21
12	659.78	660.12	660.12	660.12	659.78
13	698.57	700.45	698.57	698.57	700.45
14	740.68	740.68	740.67	741.34	741.34
15	785.43	785.55	785.00	784.92	784.87
16	831.44	831.56	831.56	832.62	832.60

Figure 16: Raw data for E string

Fret number	Fret distance (m)	Avg frequency (Hz)	Note	Standard frequency (Hz)	Δf (Hz)	Abs. unc. Δf (Hz)
0	0.648	329.8	E4	329.63		
7	0.432	494.13	B4	493.88	0.243	0.3
8	0.408	523.56	C5	523.25	0.312	0.4
9	0.385	554.72	C#5	554.37	0.355	0.3
10	0.364	587.85	D5	587.33	0.521	0.3
11	0.343	622.84	D#5	622.25	0.589	0.5
12	0.324	659.98	E5	659.26	0.721	0.2
13	0.306	699.32	F5	698.46	0.863	0.9
14	0.289	740.94	F#5	739.99	0.956	0.3
15	0.272	785.15	G5	783.99	1.156	0.3
16	0.257	831.96	G#5	830.61	1.35	0.6

Figure 17: Processed data for E string