Chords, Melodies: A Look at Harmony by Numbers; Part I: Using Harmonic Radius to Compare Rational Pitch Collections

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Abstract: This paper introduces the harmonic radius: a novel perspective on comparing the relative harmonicities of pitch collections tuned in rational intonation (JI). By means of a simple calculation that may be estimated in real time while playing, it enables musicians to further explore sounds of microtonal JI, finding connections between intonation and the psychoacoustics of harmony.

James Tenney's harmonic space maps rational frequency proportions in a lattice and defines a measurement called harmonic distance. The coordinates of a ratio are defined by its unique prime factorisation, which also establishes its prime limit. The exponents of a ratio's prime factors are interpreted as a vector of coordinates measured along axes representing the primes.

Given any finite collection of ratios in harmonic space, their common point of reference may be transposed so that all pitches have only positive exponents. The

intervals between them remain the same, but now the pitches are expressed as natural numbers – as partials of their nearest common fundamental. This allows for a generalisation of harmonic distance applicable to any number of tones. By measuring an overtonal set of harmonic partials, harmonic radius maintains correlation with perceived harmonicity.

Using various forms of harmonic radius, it is possible to generate and compare intervals, chords, melodic gamuts and compact otonal subsets of harmonic space that include higher primes, while optimising possibilities for modulation and harmonicity.

Keywords: Harmonic radius; harmonicity; rational intonation; just intonation; microtonal composition; harmonic space; Tenney harmonic distance; Barlow indigestibility; Euler Gradus Suavitas

0. Introduction

This paper introduces a novel perspective on comparing the relative harmonicities of pitch collections tuned in rational intonation (JI).1 By considering sets of partials related to a common fundamental, the idea of "pitch distance"² is generalised to *harmonic radius*³ by a simple calculation consistently applicable across any number of pitches. Intervals, chords, scales, gamuts can be compared in an intuitive and musically fruitful way. Radius may be estimated in real time while playing, enabling musicians to further explore sounds of microtonal JI, finding connections between intonation and the psychoacoustics of harmony.

When taking on music that moves freely between many different frequencies and frequency relationships, composers, players, and listeners seek ways to navigate a space that can quickly become filled with a profusion of notes and interval sizes. The aim of this research is to move towards a quantitative and psychoacoustically based description of interval and chord qualities, building on James Tenney's concept of *harmonic space*,⁴ with its associated harmonic distance measure, and an empirically determined set of tuneable intervals.⁵

The idea of octave equivalence is based on the property that any partials related by powers of 2 remain consonant with each other and with their fundamental. Octave transpositions do not create new microtonal collisions; instead, they transform chords into different voicings and inversions related by a common sonorous identity. Since the set of odd partials includes all harmonically related *pitch classes*,⁶ its subsets present the most concordant⁷

¹ The term relative harmonicity is used here to refer to fusion, i.e., the sensation that pitch relationships are aligned as partials of a common fundamental, enabling individual tones to meld into a single timbre. Rational or just intonation (JI) defines and compares pitches by using frequency ratios. In practice, it is usually acknowledged that ratios apply within a range of tolerance, so numerically large fractions may often be perceived as nearby "simpler" fractions. Note that the Xenharmonic Wiki article on "Chord complexity", https://en.xen.wiki/w/Chord_complexity, describes a mathematically related approach to comparing JI chords.

² Measuring pitch in octaves, using units of $log₂$ (frequency): see Section 1 below.

3 See Equations 17–20 in Section 5 below.

4 James Tenney, Larry Polansky, Lauren Pratt, Robert Wannamaker, and Michael Winter, From Scratch: Writings in Music Theory (Champaign: University of Illinois Press, 2015).

5 Marc Sabat and Wolfgang von Schweinitz, "The Extended Helmholtz-Ellis JI Pitch Notation", 2005, masa. plainsound.org/pdfs/TIab.pdf. A selection of rational intonation dyads ranging from unison to triple octave, chosen by evaluating each interval between the first 28 harmonic partials to determine whether its tuning may be accurately established by listening for beating, periodicity and combination tones. Tests were conducted informally and empirically on string instruments, upward and downward from reference pitches in the alto range (220–440 Hz). See Table 2 for a comparison of various interval measures.

6 Every pitch class presented by a single harmonic series may be expressed as an odd-numbered partial, which also represents its first occurrence in the series, i.e., the position closest to the fundamental.

7 The term concordance applied to a collection of pitches refers to the smoothness and pleasantness of their tonal interaction; similarly, *discordance refers to roughness and unpleasantness. Consonance-dissonance*, on the other hand, can be thought of as including both aspects of contextually established "musical consonance" and psychoacoustic "sensory consonance" (Terhardt 1984)121-137 (1976. For an overview of consonance-dissonance concepts, see also Tenney 1988.

voicings8 of families of sonically similar structures. Partials may be treated as octaveequivalent pitch-classes by dividing out all powers of 2 until an odd number is obtained to calculate the odd radius.

Powers of prime factors greater than 2 eventually generate partials that differ by small microtonal intervals or commas from numerically simpler connections to the fundamental, producing dissonant roughness or beating. For example, the sequence of powers of 3 – partials 3°, 9°, 27°, 81°, ... – eventually differs by a quintal (syntonic) comma from partial pitch-class 5° (= 80°). Thus, for each odd prime involved in generating a collection of partials, the range of its exponents affects overall harmonic saliency.

Focusing on specific primes and limiting exponent ranges creates prime subgroups,⁹ one common way of categorising rationally related pitch sets. These highlight particular tonal relationships, guiding and informing the composition of melodies and chord sequences. Divisibility of composite partials into various primes, which affects the tonal coloration of pitch collections, may be considered by evaluating the prime limit radius of partials and their largest prime factors, resulting in an ordering similar to Euler's Gradus Suavitas¹⁰ or Barlow's indigestibility.¹¹

Including the fundamental and least common multiple in radius calculations is also useful, accenting the symmetry between otonal and utonal constructions.¹² Considering the chord of successive difference tones may also help in assessing degrees of spectral fusion. Using harmonic radius in various contexts, it is possible to generate and compare intervals, chords, melodic gamuts and compact otonal subsets of harmonic space that include higher primes, while optimising possibilities for modulation and harmonicity. Further discussion focusing on applications of harmonic radius in musical practice will follow in a subsequent paper.

⁸ Chords of odd partials are voiced closest to their nearest common fundamental, equal to their greatest common divisor (GCD).

⁹ The concept of prime subgroups constrains rational intonation pitch collections by deciding which prime numbers may serve as factors of a pitch ratio.

¹⁰ Leonhard Euler, "E33 – Tentamen Novae Theoriae Musicae", 1739, http://eulerarchive.maa.org/backup/ E033.html; Charles Samuel Smith, "Leonhard Euler's 'Tentamen Novae Theoriae Musicae': A Translation and Commentary", PhD thesis, Indiana University, 1960, https://www.proquest.com/docview/301839227/citation/ CD33AECE7F4C4C96PQ/1.

¹¹ Klarenz Barlow, Von der Musiquantenlehre. 1. Auflage. Köln: Feedback-Studio-Verlag, 2008.

¹² The terms otonal and *utonal* were devised by composer Harry Partch to describe harmonic and subharmonic structures, inspired by Oettingen's idea of structural dualism in major/minor tonality. Using the least common multiple produces the same value for otonal and utonal constructions, even though there are often differently perceived degrees of harmonicity.

1. Harmonic series; Benedetti's measure of concordance for rational intervals

 $\frac{1}{2}$
An intermolection as a subdivisory of the set frequencies, which are all integer multiples of a fundamental frequency F. It may be generalised as the product of *F* with a set of *partials*¹³ written in the form *P*° and consisting of all positive integers in increasing order: of all positive integers in increasing order: *partials in the form are all integer multiples of a fundamental frequency F. It may be*
*peneralised as the product of F with a set of partials*¹³ written in the form P° and consisting

$$
F \cdot \{1^{\circ}, 2^{\circ}, 3^{\circ}, 4^{\circ}, 5^{\circ}, 6^{\circ}, \dots\}.
$$
 (1)

The fundamental F is *identical* in frequency to partial 1° ; ratios of partial numbers to each other are evently earnelyted with earrespecting ratios of frequencies. The term "partial" in this case does not refer to a specific spectral component of a given sound but rather to a one-dimensional pitch relationship 1 : P. The value each other are exactly correlated with corresponding ratios of frequencies. The term with corresponding ratios of frequencies. The term
Log specific spectral component of a given sound log2 (2)

$$
\log_2 P \tag{2}
$$

expresses, by using the logarithmic base 2, the quantity *pitch distance* or *pitch-height*, expresses, by using the logarithmic base 2, the quantity *pitch distance* or *pitch-height*, measured in octaves: namely, how many octaves fundamental, 1°. μ measured in octaves: namely, how many octaves¹⁴ separate a given partial P° from its fundamental, 1°.
If two different pitches – simple sine waves or rich spectra – are sounded, it is possible

If two different pitches $-$ simple sine waves or rich spectra $-$ are sources frequencies. If this ratio is also a *rational number* expressible in lowest terms,¹⁵ $\frac{p_1}{p_2}$, then the interval is the same as the relationship between two namionic senes partials to consider the interval between them, which is defined by the ratio of their fundamental interval is the same as the relationship between two bermanic orien particle P_2 , then the ratio of the relationship between two bermanic equipmental P_2 . P_2 Interval is the same as the relationship between two harmonic series partials

$$
F \cdot \{P_1, P_2\}.\tag{3}
$$

The magnitudes of the numbers P_i indicate how *far* from the common fundamental they lie.

a letter addressed to composer Cipriano de Rore, ca. 1563, that the concordance
of a rational interval expressed as a fraction in lowest terms sould be measured by The magnitude of the numbers indicate the common fundamental the common fundamental theorem fund the common fundamental theorem fundamental theorem fundamental theorem fundamental theorem fundamental theorem fundamental th The magnitudes of the numbers P_i indicate now *tar* from the common fundamental they lie.
The Italian mathematician Giovan Battista Benedetti (1530–1590)¹⁶ observed, in
a letter addressed to composer Cipriano de Bore, of a failorial line vari expressed as a fraction in lowest terms coald be reconsidering the product of its numerator and denominator: of a rational interval expressed as a fraction in lowest terms could be measured by

$$
P_1 \cdot P_2 \tag{4}
$$

¹³ The notation *P*° refers to the number *P* as a harmonic partial (Sabat, 2020).

simultaneously sounding pitches, as established by near-exact periodicity, i.e., following the proportions of a harmonic series, the psychoacoustic phenomena related to "stretched octaves" in perception of melodic
interval circle is not related because the psychoacoustic phenomena related to "stretched octaves" in perception of me a namionic senes, the psychoacousitic priemoniena related to stretched octaves in perception of melodic
interval sizes is not relevant here. 14 1:2 ratios and parts thereof. Since this paper is primarily concerned with the relative harmonicities of

science-court-society-giovan-battista-benedettis-diversarum e Giovanni Batusta Benedetu, *Diversarum Speculationum Mathematicarum et Frijsicorum*
Liber (Turin, 1585), 487–493, https://www.mpiwg-berlin.mpg.de/resources/publications/books/ ¹⁵ A proportion in lowest terms consists of two or more numbers that do not share any common factor.
¹⁶ Giovanni Battista Benedetti, *Diversarum Speculationum Mathematicarum et Physicorum*
Liber (Turin, 1585), 487–49 ¹⁹ A proportion in lowest terms consists of two or more numbers that do not share any common factor.
¹⁶ Giovanni Battista Benedetti, *Diversarum Speculationum Mathematicarum et Physicorum*
Liber (Turin, 1585), 487–49

This quantity, called Benedetti distance or Benedetti height, also happens to be the first common partial if both partials are sounded as tones with a rich harmonic spectrum. Mathematically, it is their least common multiple (LCM).

Transpositions of a pitch by one or more octaves are often given the same name, or pitch class, based on a perceptual quality introduced above as octave equivalence. Within an harmonic series, octave transpositions are made by multiplying or dividing a partial by 2. The lowest occurrence of any pitch class within the series is therefore always an odd-numbered partial, which is not divisible by 2. Thus, to enumerate all the unique pitch classes presented by the series, it is sufficient to take the set of all odd-numbered partials.

2. Euler's Gradus Suavitas; Barlow's indigestibility

The observation that ratios of small numbers produce concordant intervals has been noted since ancient times. Such intervals, often tuneable by ear, have been combined to make various scales and modes (e.g., tertial or Pythagorean/Mesopotamian tuning; Greek, Arabic, Persian divisions of the tetrachord; Zarlino's just intonation scale; Bharata's vina experiment described in the Natyasastra).

The building blocks of ratios are numbers and their unique prime factors. Products of smaller prime numbers produce composite numbers that themselves remain relatively small. Many common harmonic tunings used in music are generated exclusively from the first three primes: 2, 3, and 5. In 1739, mathematician Leonhard Euler devised a method of depicting networks of such "5-limit"¹⁷ or *quintal* relationships on a two-dimensional graph, providing a visualisation of pitch classes interlocking the partial 3° relationship (perfect fifths) and the partial 5° relationship (major thirds) in a lattice of triads (Tonnetz).18

In the same book, Tentamen Novae Theoriae Musicae, Euler also developed a method for evaluating the "pleasantness" of rationally tuned pitches, intervals and chords, which he called Gradus Suavitas. He assigned a degree to each natural number.¹⁹ The degree of the number *m* represents the degree of pleasantness of the frequency ratio 1 : *m*. The unison ratio 1 : 1 is assigned degree 1 and the interval $1 : p$, where p is a prime number, is assigned degree p. The composite interval $1 : pq$, where p and q are both prime, is assigned degree $p + q - 1 = 1 + (p - 1) + (q - 1)$.

By induction, the following formula calculates the Euler degree of any number, based on its (unique) prime factorisation, i.e., when written as a product of powers of various primes –

¹⁷ The term prime limit defines the largest prime number that may be a factor of any element in a set of ratios.

¹⁸ Marc Sabat and Thomas Nicholson, "A Compact Enharmonically Viable Subset of Harmonic Space: The Stern-Brocot Tree and Some Thoughts About Lattices and Spirals["], Živá hudba, 2021, https://ziva-hudba.info/ stern-brocot-ji/.

¹⁹ Natural numbers are the positive integers or positive whole numbers.

$$
GS\left(\prod_{i} p_{i}^{k_{i}}\right) = 1 + \sum_{i} k_{i}(p_{i} - 1)
$$
\n⁽⁵⁾

- counting the number of each prime in the factorisation (k_i) and scaling by the prime's μ_1 inagrifique μ_1 – 1). The μ_1 ensures that each power of the prime number 2 is counted
once, thus keeping track of "octaves".) Furthermore, Euler defined a way of measuring the Gradus of any fraction and, by extension, of any rational chord written as a lowest magnitude $(p_i - 1)$. (The "-1" ensures that each power of the prime number 2 is counted the Gradus of any haction and, by extension, or any rational chord written terms proportion, by equating it with the LCM of the numbers:

$$
GS(a:b:c) = GS(1:LCM(a,b,c))
$$
 (6)

As noted above in the discussion of Benedetti distance, this is also the *lowest common* partial of the pitches: it determines the frequency at which beating might occur if the As noted above in the discussion of Benedetti distance, this is also the *lowest common* partial of the pitches: it is also the lowest common determines the frequency at which beating might occur if the chord is sounded and tuned with rich timbres. chord is sounded and tuned with rich timbres.

By inventing a calculation providing a quantitative, graduated continuum of relative concordance, Euler's method supports the idea that intervals with prime factors gre
than 5 might also possesses a certain place whose. The musical relations have attended the 5-limit had been documented by Greek and Arabic theorists (Claudius Ptolemy, Abu Nasr Farabi, Ibn Sina, among others), reflecting practices of their time and place,²⁰ but such sounds had only very rarely been used in European music.²¹ By inventing a calculation providing a quantitative, graduated continuum of relative concordance, Euler's concordance, Euler's method supports the idea that intervals with prime factors greater than 5 might also possess a certain pleasantness. The musical role of proportions beyond the 5-limit had been documented by Greek and Arabic theorists (Claudius Ptolemy, Abu
Naar Farabic the Sine canaar athaw), reflecting aractices of their time and place $\frac{20}{2}$ but

ITA-syntonic-comma meantone, it represents the 4.0 major third interval exactly as
So hoving two needs event 4:7's written as "sygmented ovthe" (bb of all of \geq composers, among them Michelangelo Rossi and Girolamo Frescobaldi, made occasional use of these septimal sounds as musical consonances, composing chords com From 0.1.0. Chaseppe raminal gued medically for a bioademiciasori or septimal sounds as musical components and composition and components as musical components and components and components and components and components an ing several examples (Johnson, 1985). Nevertheless, the musicality of higher primes continues to be debated. Many *tuneable* sounds including 7° exist, but the consonance In Europe, the most prevalent temperament from the 16th to 19th centuries was as having two nearly exact 4:7's, written as "augmented sixths" (bb-g#, eb-c#). Some composers, among them wicherangero Rossi and Giroramo Prescobardi, made occasional
use of these *septimal* sounds as musical consonances, composing chords combining 4:5:7 or 6:7:8.²² Giuseppe Tartini argued theoretically for a broader inclusion of septimal consonances in figured bass progressions, inventing a microtonal notation and composing several examples (Jonnson, 1985). Nevertheless, the musicality of higher primes
continues to be debated. Many *tuneable* sounds including 7° exist, but the consonance consonances in figured bass progressions, inventing a microtonal notation and composing several examples 1/4-syntonic-comma meantone. It represents the 4:5 major third interval exactly as well

Glovanni Battista Doni (1595–1647).
22 Thomas Ciszak, "Frescobaldi and the Natural Seventh", presented at Winter Musik, Akademie der Künste
Perlin 2002 slightly alternative measurement scale by dropping the term $1+$ $1+$ Berlin, 2022.

⁽Johnson, 1985). Nevertheless, the musicality of higher primes continues to be debated. Many *tuneable* sounds Readings in the Literature of Music (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1989); Idin Samimi Mofakham,
"Helegraphic Composition Technique", Nequestion Academy of Music no. 8 (May 2002), https://www. researchcatalogue.net/view/1092359/1871366. ²⁰ Andrew Barker, ed. *Greek Musical Writings. Vol. 2: Harmonic and Acoustic Theory*, Cambridge
Poodings in the Literature of Music (Combridge: Combridge University Press, 1989); Idin Somimi Metakham including 7° exist, but the consonance produced by their periodic signatures often combines strong timbral "Holographic Composition Technique", Norwegian Academy of Music no. 8 (May 2023). https://www.

Tastata 2 (Latina: Il Levante Libreria, 2008). A notable exception is the enharmonic music and instruments of
Giovanni Battista Doni (1595–1647). ²¹ Patrizio Barbieri, Enharmonic Instruments and Music 1470–1900: Revised and Translated Studies, Giovanni Battista Doni (1595–1647).

produced by their periodic signatures often combines strong timbral fusion and roughness in a distinctive way not always perceived as pleasant.
https://www.androughness.com/www.androughness.com/www.androughness.com/www.androughness.com/www.androughness.c

In 1978, composer Clarence Barlow modified Euler's formula. His equation for In 1978, composer Clarence Barlow modified Euler's formula. His equation for *indigestibility* (ξ) of a number *indigestibility* (ξ) of a number slightly altered Euler's measurement scale by dropping
the term "1+": the term "1+":

$$
\xi\left(\prod_i p_i^{k_i}\right) = 2\sum_i k_i \frac{(p_i - 1)^2}{p_i} \tag{7}
$$

Here, $\xi(1)$ takes the value 0 and $\xi(2)$ takes the value 1, counting the "number of octaves" more consistently, as powers of 2. In addition, Barlow multiplied Euler's scaling factor, (p_i-1) , by an additional factor, $2\frac{(p_i-1)}{p_i}$. If p_i is 2, this factor is equal to 1. As p_i increases, p_i p_i
Abis, fastor also insussesso angelually approaching Ω . Thus, it favours on allow primes.

this factor also increases, gradually approaching 2. Thus, it favours smaller primes. Barlow also derived a measure of an interval's *polarity*. For a ratio $p : q$, polarity is defined as polarity is defined as a strategy in the strategy of the strategy is defined as P or P and P or P or P

$$
sign(\xi(q)-\xi(p))\tag{8}
$$

(Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1989); Idin Samimi Mofakham, "Holographic Composition Technique", Norwegian Academy and the ratio's harmonicity is defined as the polarity value, -1, 0, or 1, multiplied by

$$
\frac{1}{\xi(p) + \xi(q)}
$$
\n(9)

– or pitch sets (primarily scales and gamuts), *specific harmonicity* is evaluated by averaging harmonicities of all the pairwise intervals. averaging harmonicities of all the pairwise intervals. – for pitch sets (primarily scales and gamuts), specific harmonicity is evaluated by

Note that the denominator expression $\xi(p) + \xi(q)$ is equivalent to $\xi(pq)$. Like Euler, Barlow's expression equates the degree of a ratio in lowest terms with its LCM.
Barlow's expression equates the degree of a ratio in lowest terms with its LCM.

Benedetti distance evaluates the "size" of fractions based on the absolute magnitudes of numerator and denominator, without consi humbers so that products of smaller primes (more easily constructed pitches) precede of generating concordances.²³ Deficient distance evaluates the size of flactions based on the absolute magnitudes of numerator and denominator, without considering the size of prime factors. By contrast, Eurer's and Banow's measures consider the degree or divisibility. They ofder the natural larger primes, mirroring how many musical tone systems are built up from a smaller set Euler's and Barlow's measures consider the degree of divisibility: they order the natural

²³ See Appendix 1 for a table comparing the ordering of integers produced respectively by the Euler, Barlow,
and Sabat measures. and Sabat measures.

3. Tenney's harmonic space and harmonic distance

In John Cage and the Theory of Harmony (1983) American/Canadian composer James Tenney formulated the concept of harmonic space, generalising Euler's lattice model. Tenney's harmonic space maps fractions, representing rational frequency proportions, in an n-dimensional lattice.

A ratio is assigned coordinates in the lattice. These coordinates are defined by the ratio's unique prime factorisation, which also establishes its prime limit.²⁴ The exponents²⁵ of a ratio's prime factors are interpreted as a vector of coordinates measured along axes representing the primes. The numerator comprises primes with positive exponents; the denominator, negative exponents; any excluded primes have exponent 0. Together, these integer exponents produce a vector of coordinates. The range along each prime axis is determined by the respective exponent's magnitude. The 2-axis is enumerated in octaves (1:2), the 3-axis in perfect twelfths (1:3), and so on. The scaling of each axis is in units of length log_2p , so that the usual measure of pitch-height in terms of octaves is preserved.

As an example, consider the diatonic semitone interval found between partials 15[°] and 16°, written as the ratio 15:16 or, equivalently, as the lowest terms fraction 16/15, representing the pitch one diatonic semitone above 1/1. If 1/1 is assigned a specific frequency, 16/15 determines a new frequency, i.e., a specific pitch:

$$
\frac{16}{15} = 2^4 \cdot 3^{-1} \cdot 5^{-1}
$$
 (10)

In harmonic space this pitch is represented by the coordinates (4, −1, −1), describing ln harmonic space this pitch In narmonic space this pitch is represented by the coordinates $(4, -1, -1)$, describing
a journey by intervals: taking four octaves $(\frac{2}{1})^4$ upward and one twelfth $(\frac{3}{1})^{-1}$ plus one seventeenth $(\frac{5}{1})^{-1}$ downward from the starting point $(\frac{1}{1})$. Upward steps, i.e., those with a positive exponent, multiply frequencies by powers of a prime number; downward steps, those with negative exponents, divide by the same prime. These steps can be taken in any order, changing the pitches encountered along the way. The combined pitch of two successive ratios is determined by adding their exponents; the interval point (origin) is distance-preserving (isomorphic).²⁶ between two ratios is determined by subtracting them. Thus, transposing the starting

²⁴ Since the set of all prime numbers is infinite, usually the term "harmonic space" is taken to refer to a subset of the entire possible space. Dimensionality of the vectors making up a subset is then determined b
a specific *finite* subset of primes. For example, one can define 47-limit-space, with coordinates for all primes up to 47 or (2, 3, 7)-space, which is three-dimensional. a subset of the entire possible space. Dimensionality of the vectors making up a subset is then determined by

²⁵ The number of times each prime occurs in the product is called its power or exponent.

²⁶ Each pitch's exponents are shifted by the same vector, so the difference between pitches remains

1996 feeted indigestibility are calculated for positive integers and then applied to fractions. In the harmonic distance of α unaffected.

Based on this idea of "moving" through harmonic space, Tenney defined a "city-block" metric called *harmonic distance*, which is the sum of the magnitudes of all the individual component steps needed to get from the origin (1/1) to the desired ratio (16/15) by a direct route. It does not matter whether these steps are taken upward or downward. Mathematically, this means that the *sign* of the exponents is ignored; only their magnitude or absolute value is considered. Basic of "metric called *narmonic distance*, which is the sum of the magnitudes of all the individual

In the Euler and Barlow equations shown above, the exponents n_i are always positive numbers eined GS and indicatibility are alwayled for positive integers and then tive numbers, since GS and indigestibility are calculated for positive integers and then are numbers, since Go and indigestionity are calculated for positive integers and then
applied to fractions. In the harmonic distance equation that follows, the product on
the left eide can clear be a fraction on the expre the left side can also be a *fraction*, so the expression potentially includes positive and negative exponents: m the Euler and Barlow equence is considered. equation that follows, the product on the left side can also be a *fraction,* so the expression potentially includes

$$
HD\left(\prod_i p_i^{k_i}\right) = \log_2\left(\prod_i p_i^{k_i}\right) = \sum_i \log_2(p_i^{|k_i|}) = \sum_i |k_i| \log_2(p_i) \qquad (11)
$$

Applied to 16/15 (skipping the third step in Eq. 11 for brevity), this equation gives a narmonic distance or:
a a harmonic distance of:

$$
HD(2^4 \cdot 3^{-1} \cdot 5^{-1}) = \log_2(2^4 \cdot 3^1 \cdot 5^1) = 4 \cdot \log_2(2) + 1 \cdot \log_2(3) + 1 \cdot \log_2(5) \approx 7.91
$$

By taking the absolute value of exponents, harmonic distance in effect "flips" the part of the initial fraction to denominator part of the initial fraction to the top:

$$
HD\left(\frac{num}{den}\right) = \log_2\left(\frac{num \cdot den}{1}\right) = \log_2 num + \log_2 den \tag{12}
$$

The base 2 logarithm of the product of two partials "num" and "den" measures pitch distance in octaves and can be rewritten as a sum of the individual pitch distances of Taking once again the example 16/15, this alternate formulation gives: "num" and "den".

 $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$ 16 16 Taking once again the example 16/15, this alternate formulation gives: Taking once again the example 16/15, this alternate formulation gives: Taking once again the example 16/15, this alternate formulation gives:

$$
HD\left(\frac{16}{15}\right) = \log_2(16 \cdot 15) = \log_2(16) + \log_2(15) \approx 7.91
$$

Notice that, along the way, Benedetti's 16th-century measure of concordance makes a reappearance! Euler is also revisited: since the numerator and the denominator are assumed to be in lowest terms, their LCM (least common multiple) is equal to their product; Euler equated a fraction's pleasantness with its LCM:

$$
GS\left(\frac{num}{den}\right) = GS(LCM(num, den)) = GS(num \cdot den). \tag{13}
$$

This gives another way of thinking about what harmonic distance is evaluating: it measures one-dimensional pitch distance from the fundamental to the lowest common partial of two pitches, represented by the numbers num and den.

4. Partch's otonality/utonality; Tenney's intersection; Erlich's harmonic entropy

is reversed, the magnitude of the pitch distance between them remains the same; only
its "direction" changes. If frequency increases, the pitch distance is rising, or positive; Intervals, ratios of two frequencies, are inherently symmetric. If the order of frequencies is reversed, the magnitude of the pitch distance between them remains the same; only if frequency decreases, the pitch distance is falling, or negative.

It trequency decreases, the pitch distance is failing, or hegative.
Chords, on the other hand, are made up of several intervals. Completely different sound constellations may be composed by reordering these intervals. Any sequence of intervals has two related but usually sonically different forms: an upward sequence, with all intervals taken as positive pitch distances, and its inversion, the same sequence projected *downward* with all intervals taken as negative pitch distances.²⁷

Harry Partch proposed the terms otonal and utonal for these two related chord-forms.²⁸
Harry Partch proposed the terms otonal and utonal form the suite of harmonic dualism. suggested by Jean-Philippe Rameau and developed by Moritz Hauptmann, Arthur von Oettingen and Hugo Riemann, among others. Originally conceived as a way of explaining the practice of triadic major and minor chord narmony, Parton extended these ideas to
11-limit hexads and devised a symmetrically constructed 43-tone rational pitch gamut. In his model of tonal relations, Partch adapted concepts from theories of harmonic dualism, the practice of triadic major and minor chord harmony, Partch extended these ideas to

Any pitch collection in his tone system may be mirrored by inverting the intervals.²⁸
Partch postulated that such a close *structural* relationship, which he demonstrated using a lattice diagram he called the "tonality diamond", would also be perceived as a sonic relationship: the harmonic series, with its major triad 4:5:6, reflected in a subharmonic series, containing the minor thad may be incorp. That chose statem ben bonnector applied that chose is a torn seen in numerous pieces, often demonstrating unexpected connections between harmonic dualism and serial techniques based on tone row transformations.³¹ Any pitch collection in his tone system may be mirrored by inverting the intervals.²⁹ containing the minor triad "1/4:1/5:1/6".30 Partch's student Ben Johnston applied Partch's

²⁷ The upward and downward forms are identical if and only if the sequence of successive intervals forms such a close structural relationship, which he demonstrated using a lattice diagram he called the "tonality" a lattice diagram he called the "tonality" and "tonality" a lattice diagram he called the "tonality" and "tonalit a palindrome.

²⁸ Harry Partch, Ge*nesis of a Music: An Account of a Creative Work, Its Roots, And Its Fulfillments, 2nd
enlarged edition (New York: Da Capo. 1974).* enlarged edition (New York: Da Capo, 1974).

²⁹ If the first pitch is the ratio b/a, then the mirrored form begins with 2a/b (reduced to lowest terms). reciprocal by 2, reducing, and normalising. By symmetry around 1/1, all subsequent intervals can also be found within the gamut by multiplying their

³⁰ The fractions represent intervals *below* a common generating pitch, i.e., a common partial.

³⁰ The tractions represent intervals *below* a common generating pitch, i.e., a common partial.
³¹ For example, in the *String Quartet No. 6*, built from interlocking harmonic and subharmonic scales.

However, this constructed symmetry is not paralleled in sound. The phenomena which establish harmonicity – combination tones, beating, periodicity, fusion – all depend on
the correlation of frequencies that are conorated by equal differences. Subharmonics the correlation of frequencies that are separated by equal differences. Subharmonics invert the arithmetic division of frequency ratios, producing a proliferation of many differing differences. This often results in an harmonically distant and extremely low fundamental frequency; if written as an overtonal proportion, a utonal chord often includes larger numbers than its otonal counterpart.

The major triad 4:5:6, subharmonically inverted, becomes the minor triad with over-The major thad 4.0.0, subharmonically inverted, becomes the minor thad with over-
tonal proportion 10:12:15. Both chords share the same common partial, 60, as well as the same fundamental (1) and the same three constituent intervals: $2.3, 4.5,$ and 5.6 . But the difference tones between successive notes of the first chord are both 1, while the second chord differences are 2 and 3, and the two sounds have different degrees
of harmonicity of harmonicity.

The two forms of the 11-limit hexad used by Partch as a basic chord differ even more. Its otonal form is $4:5:6:7:9:11$, with least common multiple 13860. The utonal version of the same chord is 13860 divided by each of 11, 9, 7, 6, 5, and 4, giving the proportion 1260:1540:1980:2310:2772:3465. Even with a fundamental of 1 Hz, more than four Tenney himself states, calculating intersection in larger sets of pitches is algebraically unwieldy and requires octaves below the range of human hearing, this chord would be voiced well above the treble staff; it *cannot* be harmonically salient as a simultaneous sound. However, taken as a gamut, each of the intervals is a simple tuneable relationship. Together, these pitches produce a combinatoric kaleidoscope of varying harmonicities that may unfold and be experienced in time.

experienced in time.
Nevertheless, by adopting the method of associating chords with their least common multiple, or by using averaging across all of the interval pairs, the methods suggested by Euler, Barlow, Tenney/Benedetti and Rafael Cubarsi³² for evaluating collections of
the congress with results the detu^{nit}um timbral coloration, however, it is to all coloration, the perceived as three or more pitches do not differentiate the relative harmonicities of otonal and utonal were chorded produce to the anti-computer the computation or the model this psychoacoustic control.
Versions of the same chord.

In his 1979 text The Structure of Harmonic Series Aggregates, Tenney proposed a different measure he called *intersection*,³³ which compares the composite spectrum of a rational sound combination, extending up to its lowest common partial, with a complete harmonic series from the combination's nearest common fundamental.³⁴ This method narmonic series from the combination's nearest common fundamental. If this method
assumes that each of the component sounds are timbres with full spectra comprising all harmonic partials (sawtooth waveforms or similar sounds). However, any chord that

³⁴ Equation in the case of two partials *a* and *b*: $\frac{a+b-1}{ab}$. When more pitches are involved, the equation becomes much more complex. ³⁵ William A. Sethares, *Tuning, Timbre, Spectrum, Scale*, 2nd ed. (London: Springer, 2005). becomes much more complex.

³² Rafael Cubarsi, "Harmonic Distance in Intervals and Chords", Journal of Mathematics and Music (Society for Mathematics and Computation in Music) 13(1) (2019), 85–106, https://doi.org/10.1080/17459737.2019.1
608600 608600.

³³ Tenney et al, From Scratch. ³³ Tenney et al, *From Scratch*.

includes the fundamental, and therefore any interval of the form 1 : *p*, obtains an intersection value of 1. If a composite sound includes all partials, its intersection is equivalent to that of a single, fused harmonic sound. Thus, among such chords, there is no quantitative correlate to differing perceived degrees of concordance. In addition, as Tenney himself states, calculating intersection in larger sets of pitches is algebraically unwieldy and requires time-consuming combinatoric computations.

More recently, in the 1990s, theorist and musician Paul Erlich, with the collective input of colleagues on the Mills College and Yahoo Tuning Lists, including (among many others) Steve Martin and Mike Battaglia, invented and developed a concept called harmonic entropy.³⁵ If pitches deviate slightly from rational proportions, the intervals and chords they produce in combinations with each other may be interpreted as slightly mistuned variations of various proximal rational structures. The detuning may be perceived as timbral coloration, modulation or "noise". Harmonic entropy seeks to model this psychoacoustic tolerance effect, deducing which structures are most likely to be perceived.

To do so, a statistical calculation is computed with respect to a set of weighted rational inputs, whose harmonicities and/or tolerances are estimated beforehand. In the case of intervals, Tenney/Benedetti (or Farey/Weil) distance is used to establish instantaneous scaling values ("harmonicities"), while the method of Farey Sequences, ³⁶ i.e., computing mediants, is used to set boundaries between rational target intervals and determine their respective "ranges of harmonic influence" (or "tolerances").37 In the case of arbitrary chords and aggregates, weightings and spheres of influence of selected rational chords must be approximated using other techniques, including, potentially, some of the methods proposed below.³⁸

5. Harmonic Radius

This paper introduces a new quantity, harmonic radius, which is a modification and generalisation of Tenney's harmonic distance based on Benedetti. HD of a fraction in lowest terms is, in effect, a sum of two pitch distances, derived from two numbers, the numerator and the denominator, taken as partials of their closest common fundamental. In other words, it is *twice* the *average distance* to these two partials.

Harmonic radius expresses "how far", on average, a set of any number of harmonic partials lies from its common fundamental. Since harmonicity and fusion within the musically salient range of frequencies are modelled by the harmonic series and increase with

³⁵ William A. Sethares, Tuning, Timbre, Spectrum, Scale, 2nd ed. (London: Springer, 2005).

³⁶ For a discussion of Farey Sequences and rational intervals, see Nicholson and Sabat 2020.

³⁷ Mike Battaglia, private communication, 2024.

³⁸ For a detailed discussion of "Chord complexity", which includes a closely related approach using a scaled geometric mean measure, see also https://en.xen.wiki/w/Chord_complexity.

proximity to a fundamental, this approach consistently orders sounds in terms of relative harmonicity. Scaling factors prioritising divisibility by lower primes are not enforced, instead methods are suggested to do so *when needed or desired.*
For a single partial ^{no} whether prime ar composite, its harmonic redive with respect to *Gradus Suavitas*.

For a single partial *P*°, whether prime or composite, its *harmonic radius* with respect to the fundamental 1° is eignaly the number *P*. For any prime number therefore, its harmonic the fundamental 1° is simply the number *P*. For any prime number, therefore, its harmonic radius with respect to re randamental 1 is simply the number 1.1 or any prime number, therefore, its narmonic
radius is the same as Euler's degree of *Gradus Suavitas*.

The value $log_2 P$, which also represents *pitch distance* from 1° to P° measured in octaves, increases as *P* does. Therefore, it preserves the relative magnitudes of harmonic radius, for any values of *P*. The base 2 logarithmic harmonic radius, or simply *log2 radius*, radius, which may be interpreted to the set of th of any partial is the same as the Tenney distance of the ratio 1 : *P*.

of any partial is the same as the Tenney distance of the ratio $1 : P$.
A proportion of two numbers $a : b$ in lowest terms is a set of two natural numbers, which may be interpreted as representing partials a° and b° of their nearest common fundamental, 1°. Each partial may be associated with a vector yielding a point in harmonic space. As noted above, the harmonic distance of the proportion is the length, in octaves, space. As noted above, the narmonic distance of the proportion is the length, in octaves, of the shortest direct path between these two partials that passes through the origin. Therefore, it is the sum of the lengths of the two vectors, measured by a base 2 logarithm: Therefore, it is the sum of the lengths of the two vectors, measured by a base 2 logarithm:

$$
\log_2 a + \log_2 b = \log_2 ab. \tag{14}
$$

The log₂ radius of the set $\{a, b\}$ is defined as the *average* length of the journey from The log2 radius is equal to the *arithmetic mean* – The log2 radius of the set $\{a^{\circ}, b^{\circ}\}$ is defined as the *average* length of the journey from

$$
\frac{\log_2 a + \log_2 b}{2} = \frac{\log_2 ab}{2} = \log_2 (ab)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \log_2 \sqrt{ab}
$$
 (15)
- and, thus, harmonic radius of the two partials is defined as their *geometric mean*:

$$
\sqrt{ab} \tag{16}
$$

This value divides the proportion $1:ab$ into two equal steps, $1:\sqrt{ab}$ and $\sqrt{ab}:ab.$

For example, if the set contains the partials 2° and 8° , the combined distance, expressed as a proportion, is $16 = (2 \cdot 8) = (4 \cdot 4)$. Measured as pitch distances in octaves, 2° represents 1 octave, 8° represents 3 octaves, and 16° 4 octaves ($\log_2 16 = 4$), which may also be reached by combining 2 equal steps of 2 octaves (4°) . 4 is the geometric mean of 2 and 8; 2 is the arithmetic mean of 1 and 3.

Formalising this, harmonic radius is defined as the geometric mean of a set of natural numbers representing partials and log2 radius is defined as the arithmetic mean of their pitch distances, measured in octaves.

For an arbitrary set S of partials $\{P^{\circ}_1, ..., P^{\circ}_n\}$,

Harmonic Radius (S) =
$$
\sqrt[n]{\prod_{i} P_{i}}
$$
 (17)

$$
Log_2 Radius(S) = log_2 \sqrt[n]{\prod_i P_i} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i log_2 P_i
$$
 (18)

These quantities represent average pitch distance from the fundamental partial 1°, mess quantities represent average piter distance non the randamental partial r, need to be in lowest terms for this calculation to take place, but to evaluate the relative riamionicity or a set and obtain a unique value for that particular interval or chord, it must
first be reduced to lowest terms, i.e., so that its GCD (greatest common divisor) is 1. harmonicity of a set and obtain a unique value for that particular interval or chord, it must r

One-dimensional harmonic radius of the *pitches* {15[°]} and {16[°]} measures their individual pitch distances from the fundamental 1°. Since the GCD of 15 and 16 is 1, between partials 15° and 16°, in relation to 1°, their nearest shared fundamental. It averages the two necessary steps: tuning 15° and tuning 16°. The value is $\sqrt{15 \cdot 16} =$ $4\sqrt{15} \approx 15.49.$ $4\sqrt{15} \approx 15.49.$ two-dimensional harmonic radius of {15°, 16°} measures the diatonic semitone *interval* \overline{a} ∑log2 take place, but to evaluate the relative harmonicity of a set and obtain a unique value for that particular

marmonic radius evaluates partials based on their average magnitudes. However, as
-Euler's and Barlow's methods recognise, partials with composite numbers may be constructed from smaller, simpler intervallic steps, while prime partials of similar magnitude must be tuned directly. Harmonic radius applied to a set of prime factors or divisors of their product. For example, 15[°] can be written as a set of prime factors, {3[°], 5[°]}. The harmonic radius of this set is $\sqrt{15}$ or approximately 3.87. Similarly, 16° can be written as narmonic radius of this set is $\sqrt{15}$ or approximately 3.67. Similarly, To Can be written as
a set of its prime factors, $\{2^\circ, 2^\circ, 2^\circ\}$, which produce a harmonic radius value of 2. evaluates how large the steps are, on average, but it does not necessarily reflect the size a set of its prime factors, $\{2^\circ, 2^\circ, 2^\circ\}$, which produce a harmonic radius value of 2. Harmonic radius evaluates partials based on their average magnitudes. However, as

radius of this set is or approximately 3.87°. In exclusive set of this set of its prime in this prime factors,
This prime factors, the written as a set of its prime factors, its prime factors, its prime factors, its prime ${2^6}$, ${2^6$ a set or its prime factors, $\{z, z, z, z, m\}$, which produce a narmonic radius value or z.
To evaluate the degree of divisibility of any number, prime or composite, one possible method is to take the radius of a set containing the number and its greatest prime factor (gpf).³⁹ Note that this set is not in lowest terms. In case P is 1, let

$$
gpf(P), P \ge 2; gpf(1) = 1
$$

${Prime Limit Radius (P) = Harmonic Radius (\{P, gpf(P)\}).}$ (19) (19)

³⁹ Several options nave been considered, such as evaluating a partial and its prime factors or its divisors.
This method for prime limit radius was chosen because it effectively guarantees a result greater than or equal to the largest prime factor, avoiding (for example) octave transpositions of higher primes obtaining lower
velues then the primes themselves 39 Several options have been considered, such as evaluating a partial and its prime factors or its divisors. values than the primes themselves.

below for a comparison of the three orderings applied to the natural numbers.

Like Barlow's and Euler's formulae, this equation reduces the harmonic radius of Like Bariow's and Euler's formulae, this equation reduces the narmonic radius of composite numbers by considering the magnitude of their prime factors. The radius of edifference in this case by concreasing the inaginated of their prime nature. The nature or a prime number remains unaltered. See Table 1 below for a comparison of the three orderings applied to the natural numbers.

orderings applied to the natural numbers.
Sometimes it is musically useful to consider collections of notes as though they were octave-equivalent pitch classes, for example a chord and its family of inversions or when constructing scales and modes that repeat at the octave. In such cases, radius may be computed by ignoring the powers of 2. Let $div2(P)$ represent the pitch-class of a natural number partial P° , calculated by dividing out all powers of 2 until an odd number is obtained. Define

 () = (2()). (20) (20)

From these expressions and their combination *prime limit odd radius*, ³⁹ pitch sets of arbitrary size may be arbitrary size may be compared in different ways, depending on what musical information is sought. Radius may be calculated and averaged across all subsets of a given size to compare intervallic, triadic or chordal harmonicities. From these expressions and their combination *prime limit odd radius*,⁴⁰ pitch sets of

a 5-limit diatonic semitone, an interval between two composite number partials, while the second is a 7-limit minor tenth, voiced in its most concordant position as the relationship of two odd primes. In the table below, various measurement algorithms are compared. Take as an example two dyads, written as {15°, 16°} and {3°, 7°}. The first dyad is

Bohodom and harmonic radius both supress the relative inclined or person-
ing overall harmonicity with respect to a fundamental, which is less likely with two distant partials. On the other hand, the 16:17, 18:19 and 19:20 semitones differ in sound and editional concordance from the eliminary sized fower prime limit intervals force and
20:21. Prime limit radius can reflect these differences, while Benedetti distance and harmonic radius do not: the choice of algorithm depends on the musical context. Benedetti distance and harmonic radius both express the relative likelihood of perceivcontextual concordance from the similarly sized lower-prime-limit intervals 15:16 and

For simultaneously sounding dyads, prime limit radius reflects the more concordant sonority of 3:7 but acknowledges the strong saliency of the constituent primes of 15° and 16° – 2, 3, and 5.

In a melodic context, as part of a scale, odd radius provides an accurate comparison of the steps 6:7 (evaluated as 3:7) and 15:16 (evaluated as 15:1), favouring the common context (prime limit odd radius) further increases relative harmonicity in favour of the 5-limit interval. The semitone is easily harmonised as the difference between a major third to be tuned in one go. On the other hand, the septimal interval necessitates acquiring
to be tuned in one go. On the other hand, the septimal interval necessitates acquiring the sound of partial 7° directly. diatonic semitone over the septimal minor third. Considering prime limit in the pitch-class (4:5) and a perfect fourth (3:4); the more dissonant major seventh 15° does not need

⁴⁰ To calculate the prime limit odd radius of *P*, calculate the prime limit radius of *div*2(*P*).

Both Euler and Barlow values tend to equate the sounds, with Euler slightly favouring the harmonicity of the septimal interval.

a principle may be observed in the companion of larger aggregates. mey intersection and prime limit of A similar principle may be observed in the comparison of larger aggregates. Notice that 1 / Tenney intersection that 1 / Tenney intersection and prime limit odd radius obtain nearly identical results. A similar principle may be observed in the comparison of larger aggregates. Notice

└──
* Barlow's harmonicity measure (in the previous table) and Tenney's intersection are written as fractions, since the values observed in the denominator facilitate comparison between algorithms.

chords may be combined with other contextually relevant partials (largest prime, unique divisors, combination tones, common partial, and others). By defining the JI-specific concept of harmonic radius, this paper opens the possibility of evaluating and comparing different collections of harmonic partials. Target intervals or

⁴¹ Euler gives an identical result for any chord of any number of notes with LCM 60. The dyad 4:15, a major seventh, the chord 4:5:6:15, a major seventh tetrad, and the harmonic series aggregate 1:2:3:4:5:6:10:12:15:20:30:60 are each assigned the same degree of concordance as the common major triad. Coincidentally, this degree also matches Euler's value for the 3:7 interval in the preceding example.

Such radius-based measures may also be used to compute variously weighted harmonic entropy distributions applicable to non-rationally tuned pitch collections and temperaments. Geometric mean was in fact used as one of the weighting methods in calculating Erlich's harmonic entropy for chords; as such, it already has an active history "as an approximation to the amount of area that 'belongs' to the seed point" (Steve Martin, private communication, 2023).

The final section of this paper presents three tables comparing different harmonic measures, applied to individual numbers, to intervals and finally to triads and tetrads. Brief commentaries of initial observations are sketched, but the practice-based explorations and applications of this research are still in their first stages. The data suggest many possibilities for differentiated approaches to algorithmic composition in JI. Also, since radius may be estimated quite easily by "looking at the numbers", musicians may find here a way of quantifiably comparing many-toned structures tuned in rational intonation while playing and thus be able to invent, shape and discover more finely their unfolding in time as chords and melodies.

Table 1: One-dimensional values (partials ordered with respect to divisibility)

6. Tables and Commentaries

Commentary on Table 1:

This list shows one-dimensional rankings according to three measures: Euler, Barlow, and Sabat. To compare the respective ordering of partials, weigh how readily the step(s) from fundamental to partial can be imagined against how many steps need to be taken. The *prime limit radius* measure is used because it distinguishes the divisibility of numbers, whereas harmonic radius does not. The first occurrences of primes are marked in boldface and highlighted yellow; some unexpectedly early appearances of higher partials that require several steps are marked in italic and highlighted pink.

Barlow *indigestibility* introduces higher primes more slowly than Euler GS. Considerably higher composite numbers (marked in italics and highlighted) precede smaller prime number intervals (like 1:5 or 1:7), which may be easily perceived and tuned. Barlow reaches 64° (six octaves, the span from the lowest contrabass E to the high E at the end of the violin fingerboard) before including 5° and includes partials from the seventh octave before reaching 7°. By the time Barlow reaches 13°, prime limit radius has already included all primes up to and including 23° – the highest prime that is directly tuneable according to Sabat's 2005 list of tuneable intervals.

Euler's list is more inclusive towards primes, but still favours less salient higher partials (81°, 90°) before including the tuneable quartertones 11° and 13°. Euler's integer-valued degree categories do not allow for a finer quantitative differentiation possible with the Barlow and Sabat measures. Partials sharing the same Gradus Suavitas are simply sorted in increasing order.

Commentary on Table 2:

This list shows two-dimensional rankings according to four measures: Euler, Barlow, and two variations of harmonic radius. As before, the first occurrences of primes are marked in boldface and highlighted yellow; unexpectedly early appearances of difficultto-tune intervals are marked in italic and highlighted pink. Ratios marked in green are not tuneable *directly* (as simultaneous dyads) but may be relatively easily tuned with the addition of a third note – e.g., $9:16$ with the addition of 12 – or, by comparison, alternation and/or superposition with a complementary dyad that produces the upper note as a summation tone – e.g., 8:15 and 7:15 or 8:17 and 9:17. A double line in both radius measures indicates the point at which intervals that are neither directly nor indirectly tuneable begin to be interspersed in the list. A dashed line indicates the boundary introducing difficult-to-tune intervals.

The tuneable interval list cited in this paper (see Appendix 1 below) was originally conceived as a tool for composing in rational intonation, since musicians playing strings or other freely pitched acoustic instruments can exactly tune ratios of numbers with smaller magnitudes by ear. Such ratios are logical material for composing music in JI, since their "in-tune-ness" highlights specifically rational tonal interactions. A list of lowest terms ratios from natural numbers up to 28 was ordered by increasing pitch distance and assessed for tuneability in various registers using solo and duo instrumentations. Some intervals could be tuned reliably and others not.

As Table 2 demonstrates, the list correlates well with harmonic radius. Sometimes it was possible to recognise beating at the common partial; sometimes periodicity and stable phase of the interval was key; in other cases, the reinforcement of combination tones provided needed cues. Intervals smaller than 8:9 were generally not tuneable due to critical band effects (roughness, amplitude modulation, difficulty of frequency discrimination). Intervals wider than 1:8 (three octaves) were ignored, although some large tuneable intervals do exist (e.g., 1:9, 1:10, ...). Low register intervals, for which the fundamental lies below 20 Hz, are not readily tuneable by phase/periodicity information, but if the common partial is clearly heard, beating may serve as a cue.

For intervals below a stable pitch, the range from A 440 Hz down to A 55 Hz was assessed. Intervals above were assessed from A 220 Hz up to A 1760 Hz. The list of intervals has not been studied formally with a large test sample of listeners, but its utility has been verified in the context of practice-based research. These intervals serve as structural points of reference in numerous compositions by the author and various colleagues (Wolfgang von Schweinitz, Thomas Nicholson, Juhani Nuorvala, and others). A version of the list is appended to this paper for reference.

As noted above, radius produces the same ordering of intervals as Tenney/Benedetti. The second version of harmonic radius is a combination of *prime limit radius* with the LCM. This balances information relevant to sounding simultaneous dyads (saliency of common partial) with divisibility, which sometimes favours several smaller steps (simpler building blocks).

This measurement gives a remarkably well-correlated result with the tuneable interval list through 10:13 (indicated with a double-line border on all four measures for comparison). Keeping the second radius value under 11 (dashed border) produces a list with all but four of the tuneable dyads and no unexpected discordances. The first radius measure has a dashed line at the point where tuneable sounds are increasingly interspersed with less salient ones.

Euler's measure correlates well in the beginning, but several dyads that are not tuneable, like 16:27, 16:21 and 20:27, occur relatively early in the list. They are seen even earlier in Barlow's list. While such intervals may be common in 3-, 5-, and 7-limit scales, they are less likely to be sounded simultaneously and are not directly tuneable.

Table 3: Triads and tetrads

unique odd partials to 27° – pitch-classes, no unisons | primes: **bold** | chords shaded by prime limit (grey = $3^{\circ}/17^{\circ}/19^{\circ}$; ivory = 5° ; pink = 7° ; green = 11° ; purple= 13°)

Commentary on Table 3:

Excerpt from a comparison of the Tenney intersection measure with three variants of harmonic radius, ordering triads and tetrads. As before, the first occurrences of primes are marked in boldface and highlighted yellow. Selected chords from each prime limit up to 19° are highlighted, using distinct colours to distinguish the highest primes (grey $= 3^{\circ}/17^{\circ}/19^{\circ}$; ivory $= 5^{\circ}$; pink $= 7^{\circ}$; green $= 11^{\circ}$; purple $= 13^{\circ}$).

All intersection values for the first 364 chords satisfying the conditions (unique odd partials up to 27°) are equal to 1, thus the values are sorted by increasing numerical values from right to left, first 3-note then 4-note chords. Intersection does not differentiate many of the most commonly occurring chords.

Three radius measures are compared. As in the case of the dyads in Table 2, the inclusion of LCM provides a more balanced otonal/utonal correlation for the simpler and more concordant structures like major and minor triads. Various "common" chords of each prime limit have been given names and voicings in more compact position, to compare the position of these chords in the other lists more easily. Note that the common minor triad 10:12:15 (or 3:5:15 in odd-partial form) occurs early in the LCM list, because the LCM reflects its composition from dyads (intervals), while radius measures its overtonal harmonicity. The first two radius lists have very few chords without 1°.

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Additional information about pdf files (accessed online):

"The Extended Helmholtz-Ellis JI Pitch Notation" – microtonal accidentals designed by / mikrotonale Vorzeichen konzipiert von Marc Sabat & Wolfgang von Schweinitz, 2004 – English Text : Marc Sabat, 2005 – Deutsche Fassung : Natalie Pfeiffer – PLAINSOUND MUSIC EDITION masa.plainsound.org/pdfs/TIab.pdf

"23-LIMIT TUNEABLE INTERVALS below 'A4' — 23-LIMIT TUNEABLE INTERVALS above 'A4'" – tested and notated in three gradations of difficulty (large open notehead = easiest; small black notehead = most difficult) by Marc Sabat (violin/viola) with assistance from Wolfgang von Schweinitz (cello), Beltane Ruiz (bass), Anaïs Chen (violin) – Berlin, 2005 — notated using the Extended Helmholtz-Ellis JI Pitch Notation with cents deviations from 12-tone equal temperament based on $A = 0$ cents – microtonal accidentals designed by / mikrotonale Vorzeichen konzipiert von Marc Sabat & Wolfgang von Schweinitz, 2004 – PLAINSOUND MUSIC EDITION

masa.plainsound.org/pdfs/notation.pdf

"The Helmholtz-Ellis JI Pitch Notation (HEJI) | 2020 | LEGEND | update 6.2023" – revised by Marc Sabat and Thomas Nicholson | PLAINSOUND MUSIC EDITION | www.plainsound.org – in collaboration with Wolfgang von Schweinitz, Catherine Lamb, and M.O. Abbott, building upon the original HEJI notation devised by Marc Sabat and Wolfgang von Schweinitz in the early 2000s heji.plainsound.org/

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85 } Chords, Melodies: A Look at Harmony by Numbers; Part I, Marc Sabat

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