

The kinetics and acoustics of fingering and note transitions on the flute

André Almeida,^{a)} Renee Chow, John Smith, and Joe Wolfe

School of Physics, University of New South Wales, Sydney, New South Wales 2052, Australia

(Received 12 March 2009; revised 17 June 2009; accepted 22 June 2009)

Motion of the keys was measured in a transverse flute while beginner, amateur, and professional flutists played a range of exercises. The time taken for a key to open or close was typically 10 ms when pushed by a finger or 16 ms when moved by a spring. Because the opening and closing of keys will never be exactly simultaneous, transitions between notes that involve the movement of multiple fingers can occur via several possible pathways with different intermediate fingerings. A transition is classified as “safe” if it is possible to be slurred from the initial to final note with little perceptible change in pitch or volume. Some transitions are “unsafe” and possibly involve a transient change in pitch or a decrease in volume. Players, on average, used safe transitions more frequently than unsafe transitions. Delays between the motion of the fingers were typically tens of milliseconds, with longer delays as more fingers become involved. Professionals exhibited smaller average delays between the motion of their fingers than did amateurs.

© 2009 Acoustical Society of America. [DOI: 10.1121/1.3179674]

PACS number(s): 43.75.Qr, 43.75.St [NHF]

Pages: 1521–1529

I. INTRODUCTION

In wind instruments, a transition between two successive notes often requires the coordinated movement of two or more fingers (for simplicity, all digits including thumbs will be referred to as fingers). One of the reasons why players practice scales, arpeggios, and exercises is to learn to make smooth and well-controlled transitions between notes without undesired transients. For players, this motivation is particularly important for slurred notes, where the transition involves no interruption to the flow of air and should ideally produce no wrong notes and no detectable silence between the notes.

In practice, finger movements are neither instantaneous nor simultaneous, and it takes a finite time to establish a new standing wave in the instrument bore. Slurred transitions involving the motion of only a single finger can produce transients that result from the finite speed of the finger that pushes a key in one direction or of the spring that returns it to its rest position. For transitions involving the motion of two or more fingers, there can be an additional transient time due to the time differences between the movements of each finger, which invites the question: How close to simultaneous can flutist finger movements be, and are there preferred finger orders in particular note transitions?

Although previous studies have monitored finger motion on the flute, they have been concerned with the flute as a controller for electronic instruments. The musical instrument digital interface (MIDI) flute developed at IRCAM initially used optical sensors, but the final version used Hall effect sensors with magnets attached to the keys (Miranda and Wanderley, 2006). The “virtually real flute” (Ystad and Voinier, 2001) used linear Hall effect sensors and could de-

tect the speed of key transitions. The “hyper flute” (Palacio-Quintin, 2003) employed a large number of sensors, but only two keys had linear Hall effect sensors. Palmer *et al.* (2007) used infrared tracers attached to a player’s fingernails and recorded their motion with a video camera. Although suitable for detecting the broad gestures of a player, this approach does not provide sufficient resolution (in either space or time) to monitor the detailed fingering behaviors occurring in note transitions.

This paper reports explicit measurements of the times taken for keys to open and to close under the action of fingers and springs and determines the key order and relative timing in transitions involving multiple fingers. The flute was chosen partly because of the similarity in size and construction of most of its keys, which means that similar sensors could be used for each. These sensors monitored the position of each key using reflected, modulated infrared radiation and had the advantage that they did not alter the mass of keys nor affect their motion. The flute has the further advantage that measured acoustic impedance spectra are available for all standard fingerings (Wolfe *et al.*, 2001), in addition to acoustical models of all possible fingerings (Botros *et al.*, 2002).

II. SOME BACKGROUND IN FLUTE ACOUSTICS

In most woodwind instruments, the played note is determined in part by the combination of open and closed holes in the side of its bore, which is called a fingering. Each fingering produces a number of resonances (corresponding to extrema in the input impedance), one or more of which can be excited by a vibrating reed or air jet. On many modern woodwinds, there are more holes in the instrument than fingers on two hands. Consequently, some keys operate more than one tone hole, often using a system of clutches, and some fingers are required to operate more than one key.

^{a)}Author to whom correspondence should be addressed. Electronic mail: aalmeida@phys.unsw.edu.au

The acoustical impedance spectrum of the flute for a particular fingering can be predicted by acoustical models, and important details of its behavior can be deduced from this. The “virtual flute” is a web service using such an acoustical model to predict the pitch, timbre, and ease of playing (Botros *et al.*, 2006). This service, however, does not yet give indications on the playing difficulties associated with transitions between two different fingerings.

The embouchure of the flute is open to the air, and so the instrument plays approximately at the minima in the input impedance $Z(f)$ at the embouchure. The player selects between possible minima by adjusting the speed of the air jet (Coltman, 1976), and consequently a periodic vibration regime is established with fundamental frequency close to that of a particular impedance minimum or resonance. Fine tuning is achieved by adjusting the jet speed or rotating the instrument slightly, which has the effect of changing the jet length, the occlusion of the embouchure hole, and thus the solid angle available for radiation, thereby modifying the acoustical end effect. Changing from one fingering to another usually changes most of the frequencies of the bore resonances and consequently also the note played. de la Cuadra *et al.* (2005) discussed flute control parameters in detail.

A simple fingering is one in which all of the tone holes above a point are closed and all (or most) of those below are open. For low notes and instruments with large tone holes, the acoustic wave is rather weaker downstream from the first open tone hole, so the length from the embouchure hole to this first open hole determines approximately the effective length of the bore. Simple fingerings usually have several strong resonances whose frequencies are in approximately harmonic ratios. For low notes, these nearly harmonic resonances are excited by the nonlinearity in the air jet. For complex fingerings, including some of those that arise briefly in rapid transitions between notes, the resonances are often weaker, and their frequencies are not in simple ratios. These issues are discussed in greater detail by Wolfe and Smith (2003).

A. The transitions between notes

In some cases, no fingering changes are required: The player can select among different resonances by adjusting the speed and length of the jet at the embouchure. Thus, the standard fingering for F4 is used by players to play the notes F4 and F5, (and can also play C6, F6, A6, and C7).

Many of the transitions between two notes separated by one or two semitones involve moving only a single finger. Provided that fingers or springs move the key or keys sufficiently quickly, one would expect no strong transients when slurring such transitions. Small transient effects can always arise because of the fact that the strength of the resonances in the bore of the flute is somewhat reduced when a key is almost but not completely closed (an example is given in Fig. 4).

Several mechanisms can produce undesirable transients in note transitions. One of particular interest may occur when a slurred transition involves the motion of two or more fin-

gers. The speed of moving keys is limited by the speed of fingers in one direction and of the key springs that move them in the opposite direction. Further, the acoustic effects produced by the motion of a key are not linear functions of key displacement, so it is difficult to define simultaneous motion, particularly for keys moving in opposite directions. In practice, fingers will always move at slightly different times and with different speeds (how different are these times is one of the questions addressed here). This means that there are several possible intermediate discrete key configurations as well as continuous variations during transitions between two notes that involve the motion of more than one finger. Furthermore, these different intermediate states may have quite different acoustic properties, which are not necessarily intermediate between those of the initial and final key configurations.

B. Safe and unsafe transitions

Intermediate fingerings may be divided into four categories.

Safe. If the relevant minimum of the input impedance $Z(f)$ lies at a frequency close to (or intermediate between) those of the initial and final states and has similar magnitudes, then a steady oscillation of the jet can be maintained during a slurred transition. A transition that passes transiently through such a fingering can be called a safe transition and is illustrated schematically in Fig. 1. This case is discussed in more detail in Sec. IV B.

Unsafe (detour). If one of the intermediate states exhibits a minimum in $Z(f)$ at a frequency unrelated to both notes in the desired transition, it may cause an undesired note to sound briefly during the transition—see Fig. 1. Although $Z(f)$ of the flute is only valid for stationary geometric configurations, one can suppose that a transient geometric configuration is quasi-steady if the intermediate state is long enough. If the transition time is faster than a few periods of the initial or final steady states, the quasi-steady approach is, of course, not valid. For the flute, the period lies between 0.4 and 4 ms.

Unsafe (dropout). If there are no deep minima in $Z(f)$ at frequencies close to those of the initial and final states, the jet oscillation may not be maintained during a slurred transition because the jet length and speed are inappropriate for the frequency of the nearest minimum. In this case, the intensity of the tone will decrease substantially. Figure 2 shows an example of a note transition for which one of the intermediate fingerings has a weak resonance.

Unsafe (trapped). If the second fingering has, in addition to the desired resonance, a strong resonance at a frequency close to that of the first note, the latter may “trap” the jet. Botros *et al.* (2003) gave examples of this situation.

In some cases, such as the C6 to D6 transition (also analyzed later), there is no safe intermediate fingering so, unless fingers move nearly simultaneously, audible transients are expected. Of course, even for this definition of safe transitions, transients are expected in the flute sound: It takes time for a wave to travel down the bore, to reflect at an open tone hole, and to return, and several such reflections may be

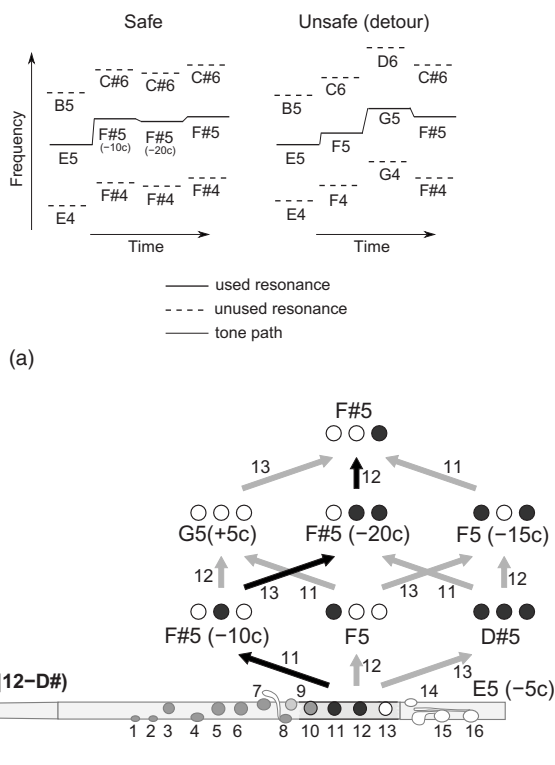


FIG. 1. A schematic example of a safe transition and an unsafe (detour) transition from E5 to F#5. In the safe transition, all intermediate fingerings produce notes with a pitch very close to that of the initial or final note. In the unsafe (detour) transition, the tone is not interrupted, but the transitory notes are not close to E5 or F#5. The lower frame shows possible intermediate key states and transitions in that transition. The safe paths are shown with dark arrows and labeled with number of the key that moves. White circles indicate open tone holes, black indicates holes closed by a key directly under the finger, and gray shows those closed indirectly by the mechanism. The legends in parentheses show a common notation for these fingerings (the pitch presented with each fingering is estimated from the measured impedance spectrum of the flute).

required to establish a standing wave with a new frequency. Finally, it should be remembered that some transients are an important part of the timbre of wind instruments and may be expected by musicians and listeners.

III. MATERIALS AND METHODS

A. Monitoring the key positions

An optical method was chosen because, unlike magnetic systems, there was no need to attach magnets or other materials to the keys and thus alter their mass or feeling under the fingers. Mechanical contacts suffer reliability problems and exhibit bounce and/or hysteresis.

A reflective photosensor was glued below the edge of each key so that the intensity of light reflected from the edge of the key increased monotonically as the key was closed (see Fig. 3). The chosen sensors (Kodenshi SG-2BC) were small (4 mm diameter), had low mass (160 mg), and combined an infrared light emitting diode (LED) with a high-sensitivity phototransistor (peak sensitivity at 940 nm). The sensor signal was distinguished from the background illumination by modulating the output of the LED in the sensor with a 5 kHz sine wave. The phototransistor in the sensor was connected as an emitter follower with a filter to remove

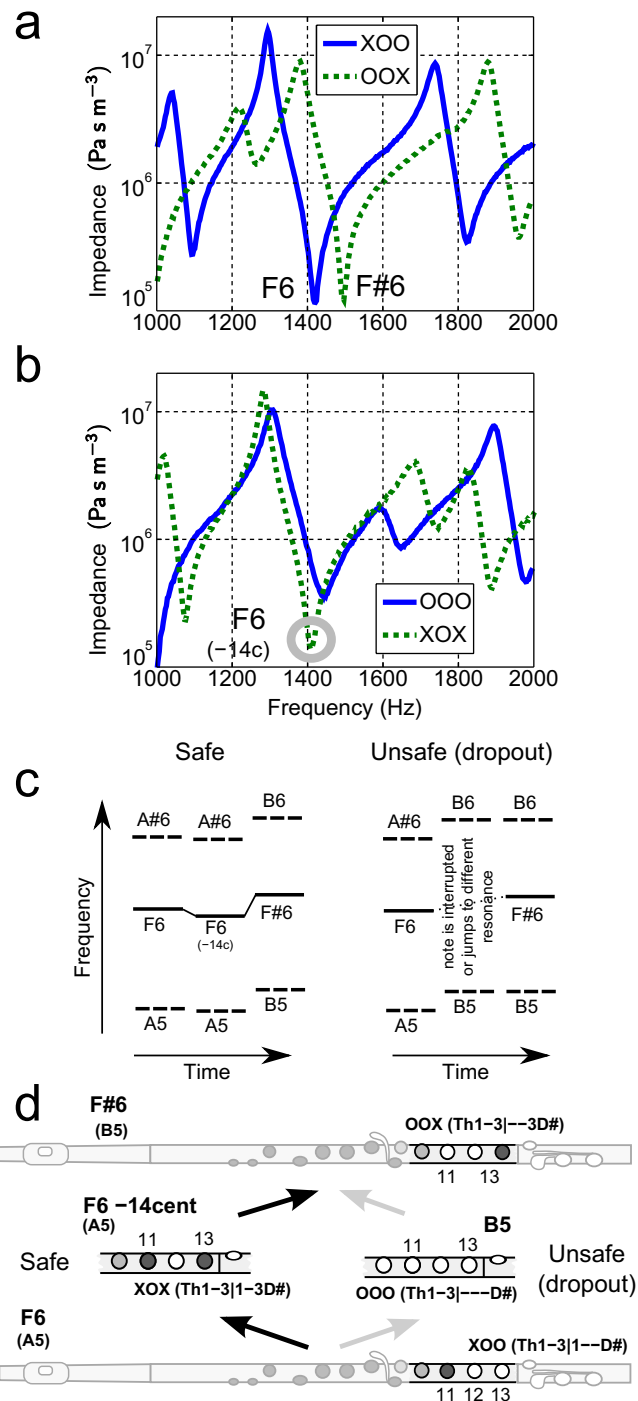


FIG. 2. (Color online) Schematics illustrating a safe and an unsafe (dropout) transition from F6 to F#6. (a) The relevant region of the input impedance spectra measured for F6 and F#6. (b) Measured spectra of the two possible intermediate fingerings in the same region, with the nearby playable minima circled. (c) Possible transition paths via these intermediate fingerings are shown in a schematic graph of frequency vs time. (d) Fingerings involved. The keys controlled by the right hand are emphasized, and the rest of the flute is shown pale. The numbering scheme used for the keys is shown in the bottom drawing.

dc variations due to changes in lighting conditions. Because the background illumination and degree of shading can vary for each experiment, the dc bias was adjustable to provide adequate dynamic range for the 5 kHz signal without clipping. This was set using a separate eight element bar LED display for each key. This procedure removes most, but not



FIG. 3. An author (AA) demonstrates the modified flute used for this work. The 50 wire ribbon cable that connects the flute to the sensor electronics is visible below the flute. The microphone can be seen in the lower left corner. The inset shows how a photosensor is mounted below a key.

all, of the dependence on background illumination: A small component remains because of nonlinearities. The sensor signals from 16 keys and the sound were recorded on a computer using two MOTU 828 firewire audio interfaces (24 bit at 44.1 kHz). Because the same hardware was used to sample both the sound and the output of the key sensors, the authors can be certain that any delays in sampling due to latencies and buffering will be identical and, consequently, will cancel exactly when timing differences are calculated.

The sensor output as a function of position was measured in experiments in which the sensor output was recorded, while a key was slowly closed using a micrometer screw. These showed that the amplitude of the modulated output from the sensor was a monotonic but nonlinear function of key position. In a further series of experiments, the flute was played by a blowing machine, while a key was slowly closed by the micrometer. The frequency and sound level are plotted as a function of sensor output in Fig. 4. The

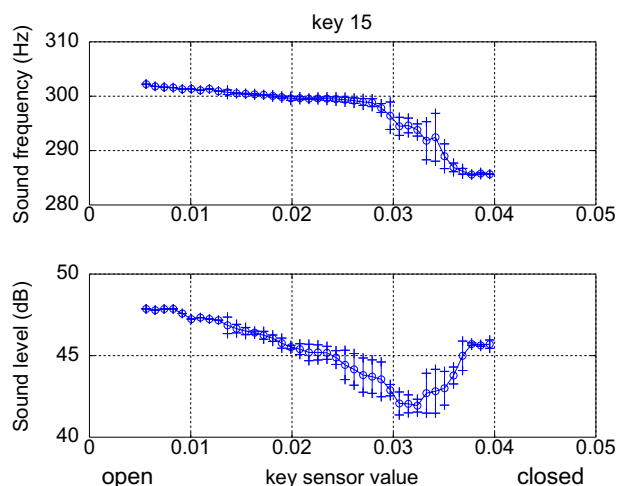


FIG. 4. (Color online) The variation in sound frequency and level produced by a flute when a key is slowly closed. The air jet was provided by a blowing machine. The saturation of the frequency (top graphic) with increasing sensor value at the right hand side of the curve is the result of continuing compression of the key pad with no further acoustic effect. The bottom graphic shows how the intensity is reduced when the pad is almost but not completely closed. Error bars indicate the standard deviation for six trials.

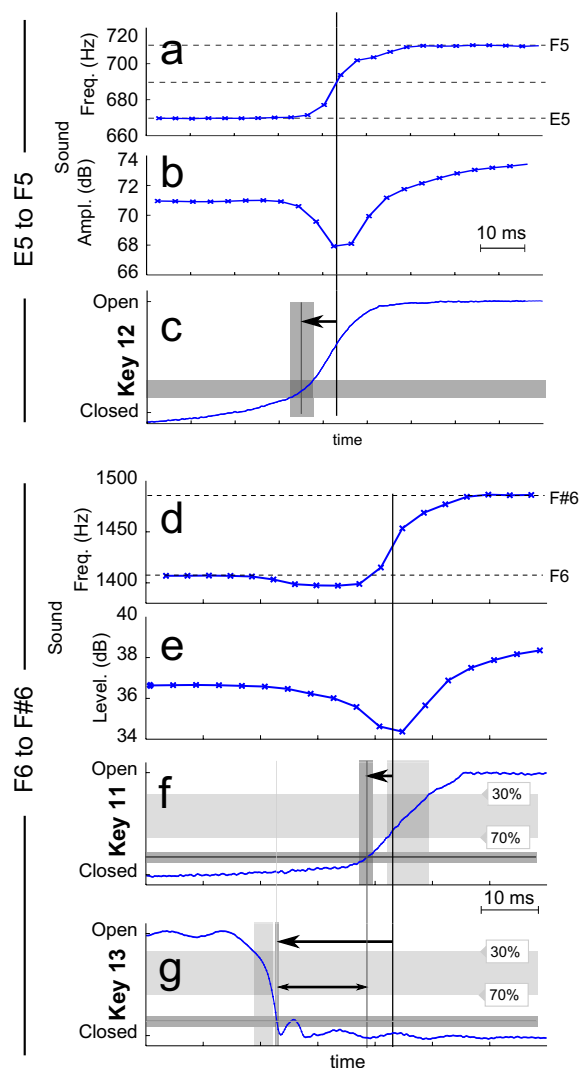


FIG. 5. (Color online) Examples of parameter extraction from the measured sound and key sensor output. Typical measurements of the (a) frequency, (b) sound level, and (c) key sensor output are extracted for a single finger transition from E5 to F5, corresponding to the movement of a single key. The horizontal dark shaded band shows the uncertainty in the key transition value, and consequently the vertical shaded band shows the uncertainty in the time of transition. The horizontal arrow shows the offset between effective key opening and the midpoint of the frequency transition. A two finger transition from F6 to F#6 is shown in (d)–(g). Their sensor values are shown in (f) and (g). The dark shaded bands again show the uncertainty in the key transition value and time. The pale shading shows the time between 30% and 70% of the key sensor value, which is discussed in the text. Again, the arrows show the interval between note transition and effective key opening/closing. The difference between these arrows gives the delay between the two keys (shown with smaller headed arrows), here about 15 ms.

shape of this plot is explained by the compressibility of the key pad. Once the pad seals on the rim of the tone hole chimney, the playing frequency reaches its lowest value and remains unchanged as the pad is compressed while the key is further depressed. The sound level is high when the key is fully open and also when the key is closed with the pad compressed. The sound level is lower, however, when the hole is incompletely closed by the uncompressed pad, which is presumably a consequence of leaks between the pad and the rim; this can be seen in Fig. 5. This can be related to the work of [Guillemin and Terroir \(2006\)](#), who found a minimum in perceived loudness at the region of maximum pitch variation.

Measurements such as those shown in Fig. 4 cannot be simply used to calibrate measurements made with players rather than blowing machines. The main reason is that for some players, the tip of the finger occasionally overhangs the key and contributes a small component to the reflection measured by the sensor.

B. Recording and analyzing the sound

The sound produced by the flute was recorded using a Rhode NT3 microphone placed on a fixed stand and digitized using one input of the MOTU audio interfaces. The midpoint of the flute was approximately 50 cm away from the microphone. The frequency was calculated from the recorded sound file using PRAAT sound analysis software (Boersma, 1993), using autocorrelation with an analysis window of 15 ms. When studying a synthesized semitone discontinuity in a sinusoidal signal (between 1000 and 1059 Hz), the frequency transition was detected approximately 8 ms after the actual transition. The intensity and sound level were also extracted using PRAAT.

C. Characterization of open/closed states and note transitions

One of the aims of this study is to measure the relative timing of the open/closed transitions, so it is necessary to relate a defined value of sensor output to the effective opening/closing of the associated key. Most of the variation in sound frequency occurs close to the point of key closure, so the saturation point in Fig. 4 was considered as a possible choice. In practice, because of the variations described earlier, this value would be somewhat different for each flutist, key, and level of background illumination. Instead, guided by curves such as those shown in Fig. 4, the effective opening value for a key transition was set between 70% and 85% of the total variation in sensor output, the exact value depending on the key and situation (see Fig. 4).

Determining the duration of effective key opening and closing is also complicated by the saturation of sensor output described above. After examination of a range of traces under different conditions, it was chosen to measure the time taken between sensor signals of 30% and 70% of the maximum range of the sensor output. This rate of change was then multiplied by a factor of 100/40 to produce a measurement of the effective key closing or opening time. Examples are shown in Fig. 5.

An automated software routine was used to detect and to characterize the key movements in each recording. First, it detected each time the output of a key sensor passed through a value midway between neighboring fully closed and fully open states. These then served as initial starting points to find the nearest times when a key was effectively open or closed. These allowed calculation of the duration of each open/closed or closed/open transition. An uncertainty in each individual measurement is estimated by determining how long it took each key sensor output to vary by $\pm 5\%$ around the effective open or closing value (as defined in Sec. III C). This value was, on average, 1.4 ± 1.4 ms ($n=2069$) for a closing key and 4.1 ± 2.6 ms ($n=1639$) for an opening key.

A single key may be associated with several different note transitions, so the key movements, detected as described above, need to be associated with the note transitions of interest. In order to find note transitions automatically, the detected pitch was quantized to the set of notes used in the exercise. These quantized data were smoothed using a filter which calculates the median value within a window of 50 ms so that only sufficiently long values corresponding to note transitions are detected. For each note transition thus detected, the corresponding nearest transition reference times for key motion are found. The pitch and key position detection is shown for two particular exercises in Fig. 5.

The following parameters were calculated for each key transition associated with a given note transition: the effective duration of the key transition, the offset in time between the key transition and the pitch transition (see Fig. 5), and an estimate of the uncertainty in the key closing or opening time.

D. Subjects

The 11 players participating in this experiment were divided into three categories according to experience. Professionals (players P1–P7) are those with more than 8 years experience and for whom flute playing is a significant part of their current professional life, either as performers or as teachers. Amateurs (A1–A3) have between 3 and 8 years of flute playing experience and regularly play the flute as a non-professional activity. Beginners (B1) have less than 3 years of experience.

E. Experimental protocol

These experiments were conducted in a room with low reverberance that was significantly isolated from external noise. All measurements were performed on a specific flute from the laboratory, a C-foot Pearl flute fitted with a sensor near each key. The flute is a plateau or closed key model; i.e., the keys do not have holes that must be covered by the fingers, and it has a split E mechanism, which means that there is only one hole functioning as a register hole in the fingering for E6. Players could use their own head joint if desired.

A typical session took about 75 min. Each subject was asked to warm up freely for about 15 min in order to become accustomed to the experimental flute, the change in balance, and some awkwardness caused by the cables. They also used this time to rehearse the particular exercises in the experimental protocol. The musical exercises, written in standard musical notation, were delivered to the subjects approximately 1 week before the recording session. Some players did not complete all exercises.

F. Experimental exercises

The players were recorded performing a selection of note transitions, scales, arpeggios, and musical excerpts. Except for the musical excerpts, each written exercise was performed at least twice at two different tempi: players were asked to play “fast” (explained to them thus: as fast as possible while still feeling comfortable and sure that all the notes in the exercise were present) and “slow” (in a slow

TABLE I. Durations (average \pm standard deviation and number of transitions used for statistics in brackets) of different key movements.

Key	Finger	Press time (ms) (<i>n</i>)	Release time (ms) (<i>n</i>)
3	L index	11.3 \pm 4.8 (100)	15.9 \pm 4.9 (100)
4	L thumb	8.7 \pm 1.1 (204)	9.2 \pm 2.1 (205)
6	L medium	15.2 \pm 6.0 (101)	16.9 \pm 3.7 (304)
7	L ring	17.0 \pm 9.5 (273)	22.2 \pm 9.4 (480)
11	R index	11.2 \pm 5.1 (160)	15.6 \pm 3.3 (185)
12	R medium	8.9 \pm 11.1 (160)	15.3 \pm 3.1 (181)
13	R ring	8.3 \pm 2.5 (532)	16.7 \pm 9.4 (524)
14	R little	12.1 \pm 2.6 (179)	12.9 \pm 9.3 (172)

tempo but still comfortable to perform the exercise once in a single breath). In the case of the fast performance, the musician was asked to repeat the exercise as many times as possible (but still comfortable) in a single breath.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The times taken for a key to be effectively depressed and released (i.e., to make the relevant key open or close depending upon its mechanism) are shown for some keys in Table I. In all cases, pressing times are quicker perhaps because the finger can transfer momentum gained in a motion that may begin before contact with the key, whereas a released key has to be accelerated from rest by a spring. The large variation among the durations for finger activated motion may include the variations in strength and speed of the fingers in the somewhat different positions in which they are used. There is rather less variation among the mechanical release times. However, some keys differ noticeably from the others. Large variation in the latter involves the key mechanism: Some keys move alone, others in groups of two or three, because of the clutches that couple their motion. In particular, the left thumb key and the right little finger (D# key) have stiffer springs, so their release movement is significantly faster ($p < 0.001$) than for other keys. These keys have relatively important roles in supporting the flute. Overall, slow tempi produce significantly slower ($p = 0.03$) key press times.

A. Single finger transitions

When only one key is involved in a note transition, the pitch change is a direct consequence of the motion of that key. As explained above, the transition from one note to another is not discrete. The frequency of the minimum in $Z(f)$ corresponding to the fundamental of one note is shifted gradually as the opening cross-section of the hole is increased. A relatively small range of key positions, near the fully closed limit, is associated with most of the changes in pitch (Fig. 4): Variations in position near the fully open state have much less effect. The delay between detected key motion and frequency change was 1.9 ± 3.8 ms ($n = 1303$), which is less than the uncertainties in the measurements: The uncertainty in frequency change is several milliseconds, and the experimental uncertainty in key motion is a few millise-

conds (Fig. 5). (The time for radiated sound from any part of the flute to reach the microphone was only about 1 or 2 ms.)

B. Two finger transitions

When two keys are involved in a note transition, there are two possible intermediate key configurations due to the non-simultaneous movement of the fingers. Examples involving the index and ring fingers of the right hand moving in opposite directions are the transitions F4 to F#4, F5 to F#5, and F6 to F#6, but only F6/F#6 involves an unsafe intermediate. Using X to indicate depressed and O to indicate unpressed and only indicating the index, middle, and ring fingers of the right hand, this transition goes from XOO to OOX, with the possible intermediates being XOX and OOO, as shown in Fig. 2. The fingering with both keys depressed (XOX) plays a note 14 cents flatter than F6. The fingering with neither key depressed (OOO) is more complicated. If the speed of the air jet is well adjusted to play F6 or F#6, then this fingering does not play a clear note (see Fig. 6). If the speed of the air jet is somewhat slower than would normally be used to play these notes, then it will play a note near B5. So, apart from the ideal, unrealizable, “simultaneous” finger movement, there can only be one safe path for the transition XOO to OOX, and that goes via the fingering XOX (in which both keys are briefly depressed): The slight perturbation in pitch cannot be detected in a rapid transition.

The authors have also sought to compare intermediate states used during different exercises involving the same transition. Players were asked to alternate rapidly between the two notes as well as play them in the context of a scale. The exercise of rapidly alternating between XOO and OOX fingerings is an artificial exercise. For such rapid alternations, players often use special trill fingerings, in which intonation and/or timbre are sacrificed in return for ease of rapid performance. To perform this trill, a flutist would normally alternate the XOX and OOX fingerings, i.e., transform it into a single finger transition using the index finger only. Thus, the alternation exercise is one that flutists will not have rehearsed before this study. By contrast, the same key transition in the context of a scale (here the Bb minor scale) is one which experienced flutists will have practiced over years.

Considerable differences were found between slow and fast trials (data not shown). The results for all players are presented in Fig. 7. Figure 7 shows that the descending transition (F#6 to F6) has a relatively consistent behavior. For note alternations, professional musicians used a safe finger order 72% of the times (that is, transiting through the XOX state where both keys are depressed). Although they sometimes (48%) use the unsafe finger order in the scale context, $t_{13} - t_{11}$ was in average 3.8 ± 9.6 ms ($n = 210$), so that this transition is close to simultaneous.

In the ascending case (F6 to F#6) of the alternation exercise, professionals used safe transitions in 57% of cases although the behavior was less homogeneous among players ($p < 0.001$ in the F6/F#6; $p = 0.02$ in F#6/F6), but in the scale context all musicians used safe transitions 97% of the time [$\langle t_{13} - t_{11} \rangle = -26 \pm 17$ ms ($n = 33$)].

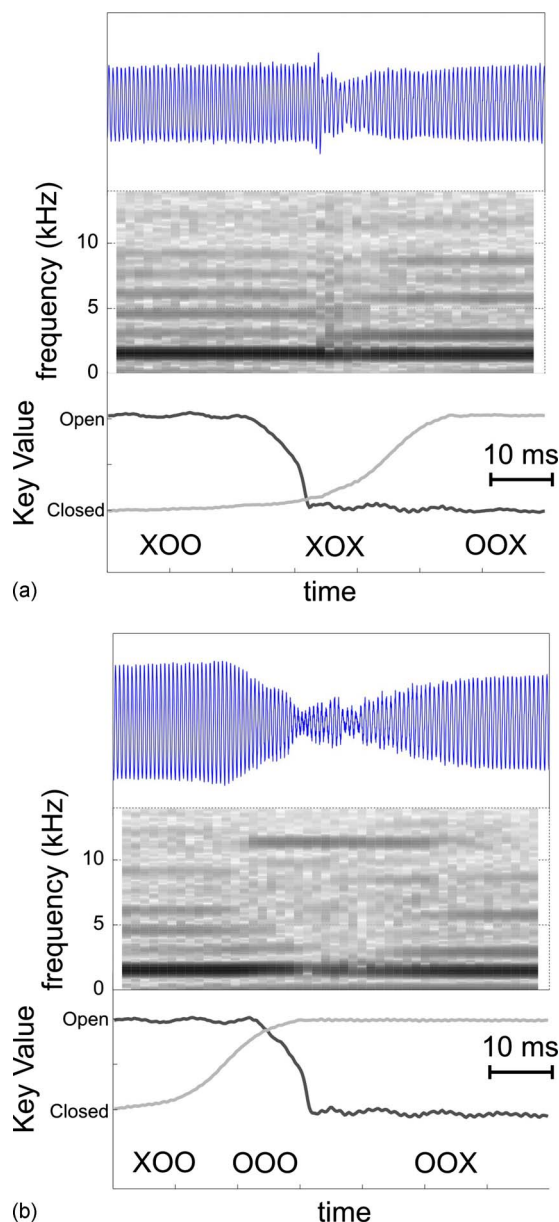


FIG. 6. (Color online) Oscillograms and spectrograms of the sound produced by the same player in two examples taken from the same trial for F6 to F#6 transitions (nominally 1397–1480 Hz), with key sensor signals shown below. Spectra were taken with windows of 1024 samples (23 ms), separated by 256 samples (6 ms); gray levels are proportional to the logarithm of the amplitude in each frequency bin. The example shown on top with both keys closed during the transient is a safe transition (see text), and that on the bottom with both keys open during the transient is an unsafe one (dropout). The former shows a brief and relatively continuous transient. In the latter, the harmonic components of the sound are interrupted for tens of milliseconds. During the unsafe transient, higher frequency modes are excited in the absence of a suitable resonance.

Although the transition from F4 to F#4 uses the same finger movements as F6 to F#6, in this case all transition pathways are safe. Interestingly, most of the professionals tend to use the finger order, which would be safe for F6 to F#6 with similar time differences between keys ($p=0.02$ for F/F# and $p=0.13$ for F#/F), even though there is no unsafe intermediate for F4 to F#4. For one professional (P5) and most amateurs, the time differences did change significantly but with no consistent direction (either becoming more or

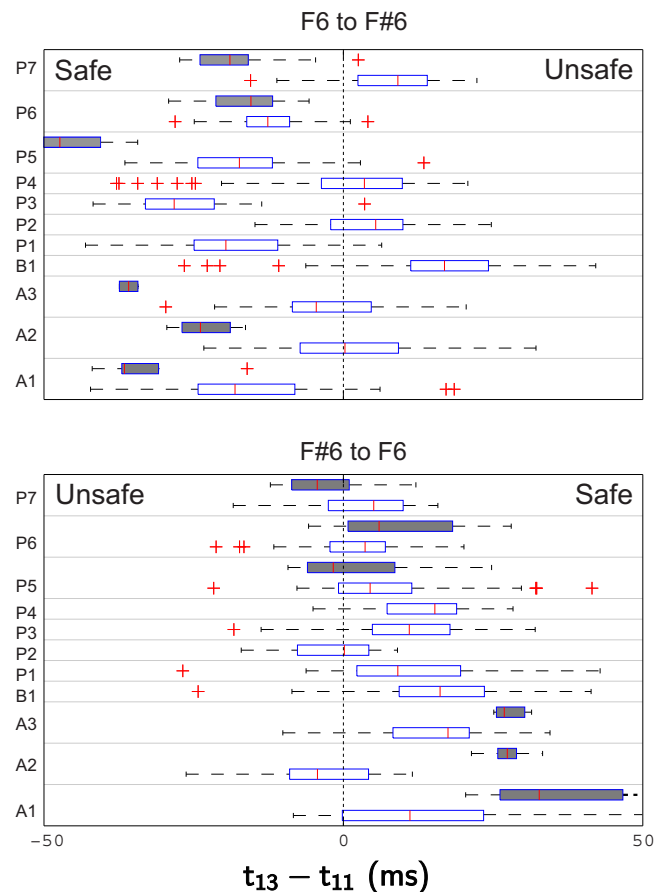


FIG. 7. (Color online) Box plot representation of time differences between the movement of keys 13 and 11 for transitions between F6 and F#6 in alternations (hollow rectangles, typically $n \sim 20$) and scale exercises (filled rectangles, typically $n \sim 4$) for different players. Rectangles represent the range between the first and third quartiles with a central line representing the median. Error bars extend to the range of data points not considered as outliers. Outliers are represented as crosses.

less simultaneous). The finger order remained the same as for the other subjects.

C. Three finger transitions

The example that will be used is the E5 to F#5 transition, which involves three different keys (11, 12, and 13), moved respectively by the index, middle, and ring fingers of the right hand, with the little finger remaining depressed throughout. Using the notation described above and neglecting other keys, E5 is played using XXO (Th123|12-D#) and F#5 is played using OOX (Th123|--3D#). Thus, the fingers are lifted from keys 11 (index) and 12 (middle), and key 13 (ring) is depressed.

Discounting the idealized simultaneous movement of the fingers, there are six possible pathways involving discrete transients. From an acoustical point of view, only one of these is safe: Key 11 moves first, then key 13, and then key 12 (i.e., XXO, OXO, OXX, OOX). This path is safe because OXO and OXX both play slightly flat versions of F#5. Conversely, when descending from F#5 to E5, the only safe transition is 12, 13, and then 11 (OOX, OXX, OXO, XXO). Any other path involves a fingering that produces a note near

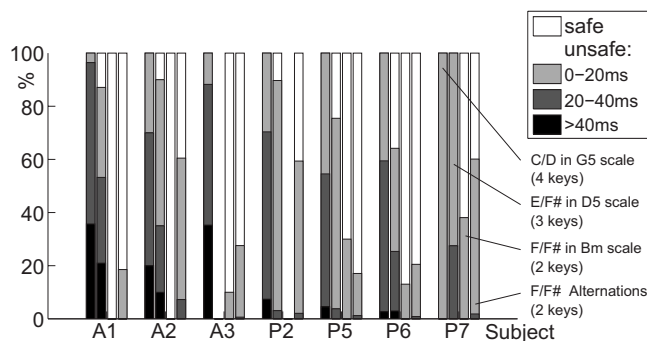


FIG. 8. The percentage of safe and unsafe note transitions. The different shaded sections of each bar show the data for three amateurs (left) and four professionals (right). For each player, the group of four vertical bars represents transitions involving contrary motion of fingers: C6–D6 in a G scale (four fingers), E5–F#5 in a D scale (three fingers), and F6–F#6 in a B minor scale and also in an alternation exercise (two fingers).

G5 (OOO), F5 (XOX or XOO), or D#5 (XXX), which may or may not be noticeable depending on the duration of the intermediate. The paths are shown in Fig. 1.

The results for seven flutists for this transition are summarized in Fig. 8. For this transition, most professionals are nearly safe, passing through states that are unsafe for only 20 ms. The durations in the intermediate states vary substantially among players. Even though this context (a D major scale) is one that flutists would have practiced many times, the delay times are substantially longer here than for the two fingers, contrary motion example shown above, which uses two of the same fingers. From examining the average and standard deviations of the inter-key time difference, it was also observed that some of the subjects (P2 and P5) have significantly smaller time differences (data not shown). To summarize, professionals spend an average of 13 ± 9 ms ($n=225$) in unsafe transitions, whereas amateurs spend 25 ± 16 ms ($n=88$), which are significantly different.

D. Four finger transitions

The thumb and the three long fingers of the left hand move in the transition from C6 (OXOO or 1--|---D#) to D6 (XOXX or Th-23|---D#), with the index finger releasing a key and the others depressing keys. Here, there is no completely safe path of transient fingerings because the intermediate states involving a change in position of any two fingers all sound a note different from C6 and D6. There are partially safe paths: For example, starting with C6 and moving first either the middle or ring finger still produces a note very close to C6.

Average times spent in unsafe transitions, measured in the context of a G major scale, are shown in Fig. 8. As with the previous example, most flutists exhibited some preferred paths, but they were not consistent among players, and sometimes the same player may use different finger orders while playing quickly or slowly.

To summarize, all professional players spend less time in unsafe configurations than do the amateurs: Unsafe intermediate states last for an average of 34 ± 14 ms ($n=65$) for amateurs and 21 ± 11 ms ($n=133$) for professionals. The difference is significant ($p < 0.001$). Thus, for both profes-

sionals and amateurs, the time spent in unsafe configurations is larger when four fingers rather than three are involved.

E. Summary of multi-finger transitions

Typical values of delays between fingers are about 10–20 ms for transitions that involve the motion of two or more fingers and significantly longer for amateurs than for professionals. In multi-finger transitions, the most frequent finger orders are often those that avoid or minimize the use of transient fingerings that are unsafe, as defined above. This is particularly true for transitions involving two fingers but less evident in more complicated transitions.

Finger motion delays for the four-, three-, and two-finger changes discussed above can be compared. (For one finger, the delay by definition is zero, as it does not include the time for key motion.) This is shown in Fig. 8, which summarizes the results obtained in the examples studied in this article.

These results can be related to similar studies on repetitive tapping movements in non-musical exercises (Aoki *et al.*, 2003). In these, single finger movements show a variability in inter-tap intervals of about 30 ms, increasing to 60 ms in the most agile fingers when two fingers are involved. When ring and little fingers are involved, this value is increased to 120 ms. These high values suggest that for non-musicians the inaccuracies in multi-tap intervals are mostly due to the duration of the finger motion rather than to synchronization between the motion of two fingers, but no references were found for measurements of these values. Trained musicians, of course, may yield different results.

Informal tests on the subjects of this experiment show that when no sound output is involved, the standard deviation in delays between keys can increase from approximately 20–40 ms, independently of the proficiency. These results suggest that for musicians the context is important in determining finger coordination.

Finally, delays between fingers are unimportant if their effect on sound cannot be detected. Gordon (1987) studied perceptual attack times in different pairs of instruments. These have variations that range from 6 to 25 ms, but in the flute they are about 10 ms. Minimum durations needed to identify pitch are typically four periods (less than 10 ms for flute notes) (Patterson *et al.*, 1983).

V. CONCLUSIONS

For single key transitions, the transition time is determined by the time for a finger to push a key in one direction, typically 10 ms, or for a spring to push it in the other, typically 16 ms (for the springs on this particular flute). When more than one finger is involved, the delay times between individual key movements must be added to this. For a transition involving only two fingers and thus only two pathways, players in general coordinate their fingers so that an unsafe transition is avoided. For some transitions, there is no safe path. Professionals, unsurprisingly, are more nearly simultaneous than amateurs. For both amateurs and professionals, total delay increases with the number of fingers in contrary motion.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank our experimental subjects and The WoodWind Group. This research was supported by the Australian Research Council.

- Aoki, T., Francis, P. R., and Kinoshita, H. (2003). "Differences in the abilities of individual fingers during the performance of fast, repetitive tapping movements," *Exp. Brain Res.* **152**, 270–280.
- Boersma, P. (1993). "Accurate short-term analysis of the fundamental frequency and the harmonics-to-noise ratio of a sampled sound," *Proc. Inst. Phonetic Sci.*, **17**, 97–110.
- Botros, A., Smith, J., and Wolfe, J. (2002). "The virtual Boehm flute—A web service that predicts multiphonics, microtones and alternative fingerings," *Acoust. Aust.* **30**, 61–66.
- Botros, A., Smith, J., and Wolfe, J. (2003). "The 'virtual flute': Acoustics modelling at the service of players and composers," in *Proceedings of the Stockholm Music Acoustics Conference (SMAC 03)*, Stockholm, Sweden, pp. 247–250.
- Botros, A., Smith, J., and Wolfe, J. (2006). "The virtual flute: An advanced fingering guide generated via machine intelligence," *J. New Music Res.* **35**, 183–196.
- Coltman, J. W. (1976). "Jet drive mechanisms in edge tones and organ pipes," *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.* **60**, 725–733.
- de la Cuadra, P., Fabre, B., Montgermont, N., and Ryck, L. D. (2005). "Analysis of flute control parameters: A comparison between a novice and an experienced flautist," in *Proceedings of the Forum Acusticum 2005*, Budapest, Budapest, Hungary.
- Gordon, J. W. (1987). "The perceptual attack time of musical tones," *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.* **82**, 88–105.
- Guillemain, P. and Terroir, J., *Dynamic Simulation of Note Transitions in Reed Instruments: Application to the Clarinet and the Saxophone* (Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 2006), pp. 1–23.
- Miranda, E. R., and Wanderley, M. (2006). *New Digital Musical Instruments: Control and Interaction Beyond the Keyboard*, 1st ed. (A-R Editions, Middleton, WI).
- Palacio-Quintin, C. (2003). "The hyper-flute," in *Proceedings 2003 Conference on New Interfaces for Musical Expression*, National University of Singapore, pp. 206–207.
- Palmer, C., Carter, C., Koopmans, E., and Loehr, J. D. (2007). "Movement, planning, and music: Motion coordinates of skilled performance," in *Proceedings of the Inaugural Conference on Music Communication Science*, Sydney, Australia.
- Patterson, R. D., Peters, R. W., and Milroy, R. (1983). "Threshold duration for melodic pitch," in *Hearing: Physiological Bases and Psychophysics*, edited by R. Klinke and R. Hartmann (Springer-Verlag, Berlin), pp. 321–325.
- Wolfe, J., and Smith, J. (2003). "Cutoff frequencies and cross fingerings in baroque, classical, and modern flutes," *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.* **114**, 2263–2272.
- Wolfe, J., Smith, J., Tann, J., and Fletcher, N. H. (2001). "Acoustic impedance of classical and modern flutes," *J. Sound Vib.* **243**, 127–144.
- Ystad, S., and Voinier, T. (2001). "A virtually real flute," *Comput. Music J.* **25**, 13–24.