

Spline Modeling and Level of Detail for Audio

Matt Klassen

DigiPen Institute of Technology, Willows Road, Redmond, WA, U.S.A.

Keywords: Spline, Audio, Signal, Interpolation, Cycle, Level, Detail.

Abstract: In this paper we propose spline models of audio as the first step toward a hierarchical system of level of detail (LOD) for audio rendering. We describe methods such as cycle interpolation which can produce spline models and approximations of audio data. These models can be used to render output in realtime, but can also be mixed prior to rendering. Examples of audio data simplified to spline models with cycle interpolation can reduce the data to less than 2% of the full resolution data size, with only minor impact to audio quality. We present a sequence of such examples with instrument models. We also introduce the idea of pre-rendered filtering and mixing, based on the *B*-spline coefficients of the models.

1 INTRODUCTION

Level of Detail (LOD) for graphics has played an important role in realtime rendering for the past forty years, beginning with flight simulators in the 1980's and culminating in the realtime video game engines of today (see (Luebke, 2003) section 1.2 History). LOD can be thought of as a collection of cost-saving methods, in both memory and computation, based on a hierarchical approach. A naive example carries the main idea: A car is in moving in the distance on a video screen. The viewer cannot perceive any significant detail, and neither would they in the real life experience that the scene is imitating. It is sufficient to represent the car with a very simple low polygon model. This saves in not having to load a complex model into memory, and not having to render the many vertices and textures of a complex model through the graphics pipeline. We will refer to this type of model as a *low resolution* model. There are many more aspects to consider, but first consider the analogous question for audio: If the car is also making some engine sounds, what is the equivalent *low resolution* audio model of this sound?

In order to make the question a bit more precise we ask: What should a low resolution audio model consist of, and what should be required of a low resolution model? First, it should consist of model data which has a smaller footprint than the final full resolution audio stream. Second, an approximation of the full resolution version should be computable locally from the model data. Third, this approximation

should be usable as a distant sound, much in the same way that the low polygon object is usable visually. Fourth, a low resolution audio model should be mixable with other sounds at the same level of detail using the model data prior to rendering.

It is also important to note what we do not mean by a low resolution model. First, we do not mean a compressed audio format. Typical compression algorithms do a marvelous job of conserving storage space, but in order to use a compressed file it must first be decompressed. This means that we cannot compute output values locally from the model data, nor can we mix audio files in compressed format. By low resolution model we also do not mean a purely computational model, or what is often called a physical model. In the best cases, such models may be the ultimate replacement for static audio files, but they can also take considerable effort to build, maintain and use, and are in a different class by themselves.

We propose that spline models of audio signals can satisfy the basic requirements for low resolution audio models and become the first step in hierarchical level of detail for audio. The basic models and cycle interpolation are introduced in (Klassen, 2022). In this paper we introduce a more flexible variant of the basic model, the *delta model*, which adapts better to cycle interpolation and in some cases solves the shape discontinuity problem from (Klassen, 2022). We also discuss methods for rendering, mixing, and error calculations.

Since LOD is well established for graphics, we also continue the analogy between graphics and au-

dio. For instance, a high resolution graphics model may have many vertices, and one way to simplify such models is to remove vertices but still preserve some of the geometry. In the case of audio, we can think of the cycle as playing the role of a vertex. An interesting audio signal, such as a single note played on a piano or guitar, has many cycles evolving over time at some approximate fundamental frequency f_0 . It is possible with spline modeling and cycle interpolation to remove many cycles but replace them with interpolated versions when rendering, thus arriving at lower resolution models.

What problem does LOD for audio solve? In modern realtime multimedia applications, such as video games and virtual reality, the demands on computation and memory continue to rise rapidly. This can also be compounded by the number of simultaneous sound sources being used. A common solution is to use submixes, so that the number of voices (or audio streams) in play at any time can be limited by grouping together voices which share common characteristics. Higher priority voices, such as those in the foreground and which are critical to a given scene, are given more attention. For instance, it may be that a single key character emits sounds of different types, say vocalizations, weapon sounds, footsteps, each with its own audio stream. Each of these sounds may also have effects ranging from simple filters to HRTF for spatial localization. The cost of such high priority detail must be offset by the savings in treating low priority sounds more economically. If many low priority sounds are dynamically being grouped into a particular submix, say a distant group of characters or objects, it may be significant to work with lower resolution sounds which can also be mixed prior to rendering.

2 SPLINE MODELS

The basic spline model is discussed in (Klassen, 2022), which we summarize here. The main enhancement to this model, which we introduce in this paper, is that we allow cycles to be defined without the requirement that they begin and end with zero-crossings. We refer to this modified model as the *delta model*, since it amounts to introducing a small vertical shift to the ends of each cycle. This shift is inserted in the form of a cubic polynomial which can be thought of as replacing the time axis over the interval of one cycle. This delta model arose initially to solve the “shape discontinuity” problem described in (Klassen, 2022).

As a basic class of sounds or signals, we use in-

strument samples with known fundamental frequency. This allows us to work with the notion of a cycle, or period, as a basic signal block. Although this is not well-defined, given that the length and shape of cycle can both vary with time, it is often how sound presents itself, and is quite compelling. (We also note that these methods can be adapted to work with arbitrary fixed size audio blocks, but that the methods of cycle interpolation are more clearly demonstrated when there is an approximate notion of cycle available.) For example, if we consider a simple recorded sound such as a single note played on a piano or a guitar, the signal can be partitioned approximately into cycles based on zero-crossings. This approach is central to the basic model in (Klassen, 2022). In the basic model, once the cycles are determined by the sequence of zeros z_i , $i = 0, \dots, p$, we do a cubic B -spline fit to the audio sample data. We assume the audio sample data is given as a piecewise linear function of time t , meaning that we can choose to interpolate between samples linearly for the purpose of defining zero-crossings. To specify the spline function, say $f(t)$, we work with a uniform sequence of k subintervals on the interval $[0, 1]$, and the vector space of C^2 cubic polynomial splines with dimension $n = k + 3$. To specify a basis, we use the knot sequence:

$$\mathbf{t} = \{t_0, \dots, t_N\} = \{0, 0, 0, 0, \frac{1}{k}, \frac{2}{k}, \dots, \frac{k-1}{k}, 1, 1, 1, 1\}.$$

Writing the B -spline basis functions associated to \mathbf{t} as

$$\mathcal{B}_0(t), \mathcal{B}_1(t), \dots, \mathcal{B}_{n-1}(t)$$

we note that $\mathcal{B}_0(0) = 1$ and $\mathcal{B}_{n-1}(1) = 1$, and all the other basis splines vanish at both 0 and 1. So we set $c_0 = c_{n-1} = 0$ and solve for the other $n - 2$ coefficients for each cycle. In order to approximate the audio data in one cycle, we find an interpolating cubic spline which matches the (piecewise linear) audio data function $x(t)$ at $n - 2 = k + 1$ specified points. A simple choice of such points is to use $k - 1$ subinterval endpoints and then add two more points at the middle of the first and last subintervals.

In Figure 1 is a portion of the graph of an audio sample, cycles 10 through 15 of a guitar pluck at approximately 450 Hz, with spline model in blue. Here we are using the default $d = 3$, interpolating cubic spline on each cycle, with $k = 15$ subintervals hence dimension $n = 18$. This signal is recorded at 44100 samples per second, so there are around $98 = 44100/450$ samples per cycle. The actual number of samples per cycle is listed at the bottom of each shaded cycle. Since we are using only 18 data points to define the interpolating spline, the match to the audio graph is clearly not exact. For this audio sample, if we use $k = 30$ and $n = 33$, the spline graph is difficult to distinguish from the original.



Figure 1: Spline model of guitar pluck.

Next, we add the changes for the delta model, the values y_0 and y_1 . It is important to note that to solve for the spline function f in the delta model, we use as interpolation targets the difference $x(t) - p(t)$, with $p(t) = y_0 + \delta q(t)$, where $q(t) = 3t^2 - 2t^3$, and $\delta = y_1 - y_0$. We summarize the data per cycle, before explaining how the choice of y_0 and y_1 can be made in constructing the delta model.

Data per cycle for the delta model:

- degree $d = 3$
- number of subintervals k
- subinterval sequence: $[u_i, u_{i+1}] = [\frac{i}{k}, \frac{i+1}{k}]$, $i = 0, \dots, k-1$
- endpoint values y_0 and y_1
- cubic polynomial $p(t) = y_0 + \delta q(t)$, $\delta = y_1 - y_0$
- knot sequence: $\mathbf{t} = \{t_0, \dots, t_N\}$
 $= \{0, 0, 0, 0, \frac{1}{k}, \frac{2}{k}, \dots, \frac{k-1}{k}, 1, 1, 1, 1\}$
- dimension of the vector space V of B -spline functions: $n = k + 3 = N - 3$
- B -spline basis functions: $\mathcal{B}_0(t), \dots, \mathcal{B}_{n-1}(t)$
- interpolating spline with $c_0 = c_{n-1} = 0$:
 $f(t) = c_1 \mathcal{B}_1(t) + \dots + c_{n-2} \mathcal{B}_{n-2}(t)$
- input values: $s_0 = 0, s_1 = \frac{1}{2k}, s_i = u_{i-1}$,
 $i = 2, \dots, n-2, s_{n-2} = 1 - \frac{1}{2k}, s_{n-1} = 1$
- target values: $x(s_0) - p(s_0), x(s_1) - p(s_1), \dots,$
 $x(s_{n-1}) - p(s_{n-1})$

Now we can define the delta model to be the sequence of cycle endpoints (formerly zero-crossings) $z_j, j = 0, \dots, N$, with the accompanying y -values $y^j =$

$x(z_j)$, and the sequence of spline functions $f_j(t)$ on the intervals $[z_j, z_{j+1}]$. We also refer to each of these splines and their associated data as one “cycle” C_j , so that the delta model is the sequence of cycles C_j for $j = 0, \dots, N-1$. Further, let the B -spline coefficients for cycle C_j be $c_i^j, i = 0, \dots, n-1$. For the purpose of analysis we keep the B -spline coefficients separate from the values of the cubic polynomial $p(t)$, but for rendering purposes these can be easily combined into one set of B -spline coefficients by way of the polar form for $q(t)$. In particular, the B -spline coefficients for $q(t)$ are computed from its polar form

$$F[x, y, z] = xy + xz + yz - 2xyz$$

and knot sequence \mathbf{t} as

$$c_i = F[t_{i+1}, t_{i+2}, t_{i+3}], i = 0, \dots, n-1.$$

Next we describe how the determination of cycle endpoints z_j and values y^j can be made through an optimization process. The goal is to choose endpoints for a cycle based on similarity to the previous cycle shape. In particular, suppose that an initial cycle or sequence of cycles is chosen based on zero-crossings. Then we would like to choose cycles going forward in such a way as to maintain the shape of the curve from cycle to cycle. This can be achieved through the measurement of error between successive cycles. For example, we will define a weighted error on the choice of right endpoint of C_j to be computed as follows: First, project the right endpoint for cycle j in the usual way as in the basic model, by simply letting $z_{j+1} = z_j + P_0$ where P_0 is the period length predicted by the fundamental frequency f_0 . Next, define a spline function $f_j(t)$ for C_j by using the B -spline coefficients from cycle $j-1$ with the endpoints of cycle

j . Since we work on $[0, 1]$, this means to use the y -values from the endpoints of C_j determined from the signal values there: $y_0 = x(z_j)$ and $y_1 = x(z_{j+1})$. Next, compute sample output values on C_j with this spline model f_j , and compare to the actual audio sample data. Call the mean-square difference in these sample values E_j^0 . Then do the same for the derivative $f_j'(t)$ and an approximate or discrete derivative for $x(t)$ and call the mean-square difference in these values E_j^1 . Define the error for the choice of $z_{j+1} = z_j + P_0$ to be

$$E_j(0) = \alpha_0 E_j^0 + \alpha_1 E_j^1$$

for some choice of weights $\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 = 1$. In practice we have found that the values $\alpha_0 = 0$ and $\alpha_1 = 1$ already work quite well in order to solve the shape discontinuity problem. Next, we choose a small value $\varepsilon > 0$ and compute the same error but now for choices $z_{j+1} = z_j + P_0 \pm r\varepsilon$, for integers $r < L$, for some bound L . For these integers r define

$$E_j(r) = \alpha_0 E_j^0(r) + \alpha_1 E_j^1(r).$$

Finally, choose the value of r that minimizes $E_j(r)$ and set the cycle C_j using this z_{j+1} .

One interesting observation with this error minimization is that the cycles in a model can drift. By this we mean that the error tolerance allows for the endpoints to shift gradually to the right of the perceived cycle shape when viewed over many cycles. This can be resolved by putting another term in the error which is a penalty for increasing value y_1 , for instance $\alpha_2 y_1^2$ to obtain:

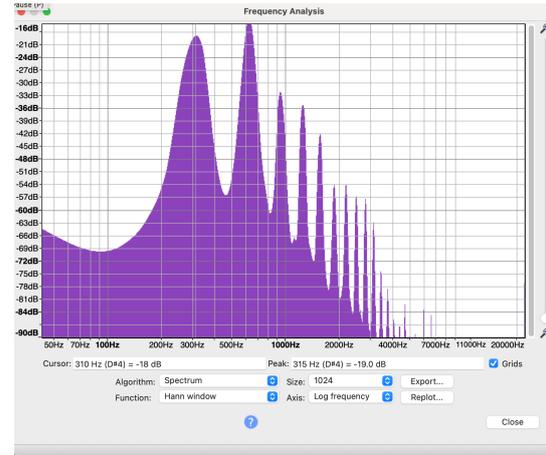
$$E_j(r) = \alpha_0 E_j^0(r) + \alpha_1 E_j^1(r) + \alpha_2 y_1^2(r).$$

This approach tends to maintain cycle shape more consistently, allowing for effective cycle interpolation, especially in the case of shape discontinuities induced by cycles defined using zero-crossings.

We refer here to the reference example in (Klassen, 2022) and the shape discontinuity which occurs at cycle number 181. If we use the delta model as described above, with bound $L = 10$ samples, and $k = m = 20$, the cycle interpolation works well and the model uses about 1.5% of the full resolution data.

3 INSTRUMENT MODELS

We describe here a sequence of instrument models for a one second audio sample with fundamental frequency f_0 somewhere in the octave starting at middle C, or 261.6 Hz. These models are computed with our Audio Spline Modeling software written in C++ with JUCE. Each instrument model is computed from



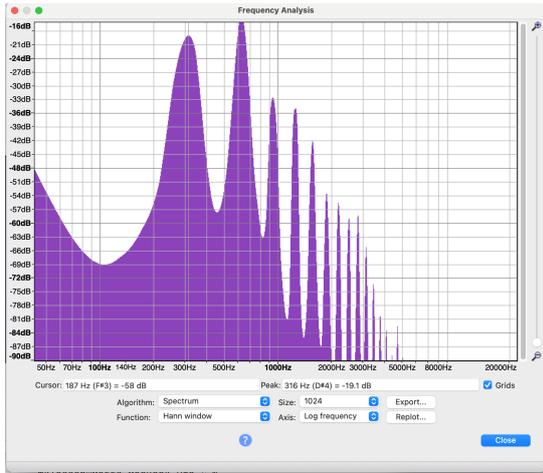


Figure 3: Spectrum of french horn model.

ence in the decibel values at each of the frequencies, and second, the average ζ_{avg} of the absolute cent values for the frequency ratio of the original and model harmonic frequencies. Note, the cent value measurement of the interval between two frequencies is defined as:

$$\zeta(F_1, F_2) = \frac{1200}{\log(2)} \log\left(\frac{F_2}{F_1}\right).$$

For this french horn model we find that

$$\Delta(dB)_{avg} = 0.98 \quad \text{and} \quad \zeta_{avg} = 4.51.$$

Table 1: French horn harmonic amplitudes.

original		model	
Hz	dB	Hz	dB
315	-19.0	315	-19.1
624	-14.5	624	-14.5
935	-32.2	939	-32.8
1253	-35.2	1259	-34.9
1563	-41.9	1566	-42.1
1873	-53.9	1875	-53.0
2181	-53.6	2192	-55.9
2494	-56.7	2508	-58.9
2811	-57.2	2816	-58.0
3121	-62.7	3126	-65.1

Next we present the same for a guitar pluck sample and model. The guitar pluck has fundamental frequency approximately 445 Hz and is recorded at sample rate 44100 Hz. Note the prominent subharmonic in the sample spectrum, at around 220 Hz. This can already be seen in the pattern of cycles in Figure 1 where cycles 10 and 11 together form a cycle which appears to be repeated in cycles 12 and 13. In fact, we can model this waveform by selecting the frequency guess 220, which restores the subharmonic in

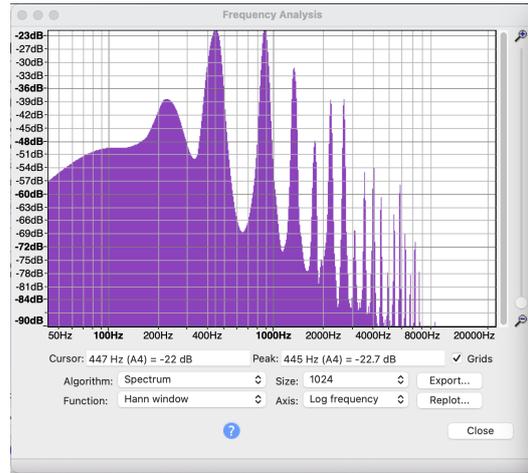


Figure 4: Spectrum of guitar pluck sample.

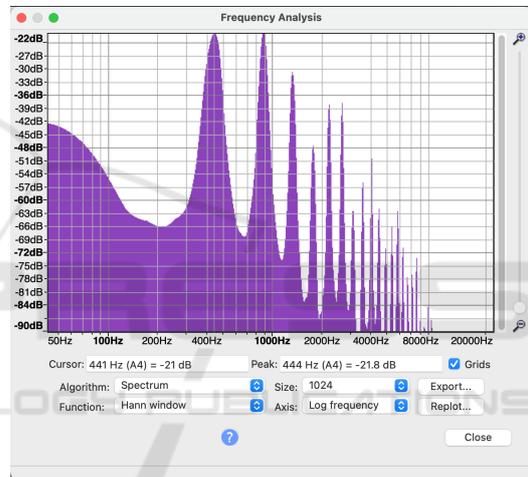


Figure 5: Spectrum of guitar pluck model.

the model. In that case, as pointed out in (Klassen, 2022), there will be a new subharmonic at around 110 Hz. It is expected that a model which uses cycle interpolation will not preserve subharmonics below the fundamental frequency, since any oscillatory pattern between two key cycles, say 100 and 120, will be lost in the smooth interpolation as cycle 100 evolves into cycle 120. However, it is shown in (Klassen, 2022) that the subharmonic with 110 Hz can be simulated by an alternating pattern of parabolas.

For this guitar pluck model we find that

$$\Delta(dB)_{avg} = 1.12 \quad \text{and} \quad \zeta_{avg} = 5.41.$$

Finally, we give one more example for a flute sample and model in Table 3, and we collect the average errors for comparison in Table 4.

Table 2: Guitar pluck harmonic amplitudes.

original		model	
Hz	dB	Hz	dB
445	-22.7	444	-21.8
883	-21.4	882	-21.3
1328	-31.5	1321	-30.8
1774	-47.7	1764	-47.4
2213	-38.5	2207	-38
2654	-38.2	2648	-37.8
3084	-66.6	3083	-61.8
3548	-54.9	3535	-55.2
3988	-47.1	3978	-48.3
4439	-58.6	4415	-60.6

Table 3: Flute harmonic amplitudes.

original		model	
Hz	dB	Hz	dB
448	-11.4	447	-11.5
892	-27.8	889	-28.0
1343	-33.0	1344	-33.0
1786	-31.7	1783	-31.8
2227	-47.9	2225	-49.6
2679	-51.4	2675	-51.9
3123	-66.8	3118	-67.1
3560	-72.1	3560	-71.6
4016	-76.7	4010	-77.3
4445	-80.4	4456	-74.9

4 MODEL SIMPLIFICATION

In LOD for graphics there are many ways to do Mesh Simplification (see chapter 2 of (Luebke, 2003)). For audio, model simplification, or data reduction, can be achieved in at least two different ways: 1) cycle interpolation (compared to vertex removal), and 2) Interpolation point removal, which is a finer version of 1). The primary motivation for interpolation point removal within one cycle is the existence of portions of the cycle which have very small deviation in curvature. The lower such deviation is, the more suitable it can be to represent such a portion with one cubic curve, meaning that it is possible to consider removing many interior knots on the interval defining that portion of the cycle. Adaptive algorithms for refining knot sequences of splines have been used in (Park and Lee, 2007) for B -spline curves in graphics. Similar algorithms can be used for the B -spline functions representing one audio cycle. This can lead to large savings in amount of data in the model, but at the cost of regularity.

Table 4: Model average errors for three instruments.

instrument	$\Delta(dB)_{avg}$	ϵ_{avg}
french horn	0.98	5.06
guitar	1.12	5.41
flute	0.95	2.77

5 ERROR MEASUREMENTS

When comparing lower resolution models to full resolution, whether for graphics or audio, the goal is to achieve reasonable quality appropriate to the placement of, or role played by, the rendered version in the final scene, or mix. We have indicated how error functions can be useful in computing the cycle endpoints in the delta model. This achieves some accuracy when removing cycles with cycle interpolation, since the error minimization is designed to give minimal changes to B -spline coefficients from one cycle to the next.

Another approach is make global error measurements for the rendered approximation from the model in the frequency domain. One such error is the *relative amplitude spectral error* used by Horner in (Horner, 2013) to compare spectral qualities of musical sounds to resynthesized versions of those sounds using FM and wavetable synthesis. It is useful to assume an approximate fundamental frequency f_0 , and to compute time-varying j^{th} harmonic amplitudes $b_j(t)$ of the full resolution sound, and $b'_j(t)$ of the low resolution sound, for various t . Suppose that these time values are τ_i and that the number of audio frames (or samples) is N_f , and the number of harmonic amplitudes to compute is N_h . Then the error is defined as:

$$\epsilon = \frac{1}{N_f} \sum_{i=1}^{N_f} \left[\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{N_h} (b_j(\tau_i) - b'_j(\tau_i))^2}{\sum_{j=1}^{N_h} b_j(\tau_i)^2} \right]^{1/2}$$

6 PRE-RENDERED FILTERING

First we make a few observations on the knot sequence we are using for basis B -splines on each cycle. Since we use 4 equal knots at the beginning and end, and otherwise regularly spaced knots, then all cubic B -splines defined by sequences of 5 consecutive knots are translates of the same C^2 basis spline, except for the first three $\mathcal{B}_0^3(t)$, $\mathcal{B}_1^3(t)$, and $\mathcal{B}_2^3(t)$, and the last three $\mathcal{B}_{n-3}^3(t)$, $\mathcal{B}_{n-2}^3(t)$, and $\mathcal{B}_{n-1}^3(t)$. This leads to some simple observations regarding delaying and filtering of B -spline coefficients. Some of these filtering methods also coincide with the methods of cellular automata applied to B -spline coefficients of cycles, as

in (Klassen and Lanthier, 2022).

For example, suppose that there are ρ samples per subinterval, so ρ samples in any interval of length L between knot values, and suppose t is in the interval $[t_J, t_{J+1})$. Then to compute the spline value $f(t)$, by the de Boor algorithm, we use only the coefficients $c_{J-3}, c_{J-2}, c_{J-1}$ and c_J . Similarly, to compute $f(t-L)$ we use the coefficients $c_{J-4}, c_{J-3}, c_{J-2}$ and c_{J-1} . So if we apply a delay operator to these coefficients, shifting by one index left, then we are computing values of f by a delay of 5 samples. This is true as long as the B -splines used to compute values in the interval $[t_{J-1}, t_J)$ are exact shifts of those in $[t_J, t_{J+1})$, which holds if $3 \leq J < n-3$, or equivalently that the value t is at least $3/k$ distance from the cycle endpoints. So the delay by one B -spline coefficient can be locally viewed as a delay by ρ samples, within one cycle, with the added restriction that we stay away from the endpoints.

Now suppose that we apply the filter equation to B -spline coefficients, with inputs c_i

$$c'_i = \frac{1}{2}(c_i + c_{i-1}),$$

and outputs c'_i . This looks like a low-pass filter, but when the result is used to compute samples, it has the effect

$$y_t = \frac{1}{2}(x_t + x_{t-\rho})$$

which is an inverse comb filter, but applied only to the middle portion of cycles.

7 PRE-RENDERED MIXING

Since B -spline models contain data which can be used to render the model to samples, locally in time, one can ask if it is possible mix these models prior to rendering. Since the goal of LOD is often efficiency, the idea of mixing prior to rendering could be an advantage. For example, if there are many voices which need to be dynamically mixed at a low level of detail, it will take much more memory and computation to render each voice and add the samples, than it will to merge the data for each model and then render one voice, the mix. Under certain circumstances it is straight-forward to do this type of *pre-rendered mixing*. For example, if two cycles are defined for the same time interval, say $[a, b]$, and have the same k value and B -spline basis, then mixing these two signals can be accomplished by simply averaging the two sets of B -spline coefficients, since the result is no different from rendering the final set of rendered samples and averaging those.

For example, we can easily mix the models of the instrument samples described in section 3. To mix two models the process is simply to average the B -spline coefficients for each of the corresponding pairs of key cycles. This can be extended to mix any number of models by using a weighted sum of B -spline coefficients in key cycles. This works well, for example, to create a chromatic scale which begins with one instrument sound and ends with another, with twelve steps of linear interpolation, computed as a weighted mix before each semitone. Examples of the resulting audio files for these instrument models and mixes can be found here: <http://azrael.digipen.edu/research/>.

8 RENDERING PIPELINE

Audio rendering for realtime multimedia applications, such as video games, can be summarized in the following steps:

- audio files are read from disk, decompressed, and loaded into memory
- audio streams are grouped and mixed into a limited number of voices
- effects (reverb, low-pass, spatialization) are added to voices
- final mix is rendered to stereo output

There are of course many more details, but some of the main challenges can be seen in this summary. In the documentation for one of the most prominent commercial game engines, the Unreal Engine of Epic Software we find the following relevant statement (see (EpicSoftware, 2021)):

“The primary cost for an audio engine is decoding and rendering sound sources, so one of the primary tools for reducing CPU cost is limiting the number of sounds that can play at the same time.”

The proposed LOD for audio suggests that these limits on numbers of sound sources could be increased by the savings in decoding and mixing at lower resolution.

The rendering pipeline for the B -spline model is very simple. First the model is stored with minimal data consisting of key cycles and missing or interpolated cycles as endpoint data only. If cycle interpolation is to be computed with degree greater than one, say cubic metasplines, then such metaspline coefficients also need to be stored in the model as metadata. The default case of linear interpolation for non-key cycles is otherwise assumed. In the case of adaptively defined segments, it can be that fundamental

frequency is changing, and even that there are sequences of key cycles of varying lengths where no particular fundamental frequency is defined.

Prior to rendering, the model might be mixed with another model as described above, by simply averaging B -spline coefficients, for instance. Next, a circular or ring buffer can be used as an intermediary between the generation of samples from the B -spline coefficients and the audio callback running on the system. This is especially useful in decoupling these two buffers, since it is convenient to render the samples from B -spline coefficients in blocks of one cycle, which may be quite different from the standard block size for the audio callback. This process, filling the circular buffer, uses the de Boor algorithm, so each sample is generated from four B -spline coefficients (assuming $d = 3$) with nested linear interpolation.

9 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper we have made a case for LOD for audio, particularly we have given some examples of low resolution models for short audio samples, as a first step. Future work should extend to other types of audio samples, such as those without a clear fundamental frequency, by modifying the delta model to allow for varying cycle lengths and shapes. Further work should include adaptive methods for model simplification based on reduction of numbers of interpolation points per cycle and reduction of numbers of key cycles. Additionally, it would be useful to have psychoacoustic studies which test the use of lower resolution audio models in the presence of multiple audio sources at different amplitudes. Finally, the management of LOD for audio in software should be tested in a multimedia context, with at least two levels of detail, to measure the cost savings in the audio rendering pipeline.

REFERENCES

- de Boor, C. (1980). *A Practical Guide to Splines, revised edition*. Springer Verlag, New York, 2nd edition.
- EpicSoftware (2021). An overview of features in the unreal audio engine: Global polyphony management and prioritization. <https://docs.unrealengine.com/5.0/en-US/audio-engine-overview-in-unreal-engine/>.
- Horner, A. (2013). A comparison of wavetable and FM data reduction methods for resynthesis of musical sounds. In Beauchamp, J., editor, *Analysis, Synthesis, and Perception of Musical Sounds*, pages 228–249. Springer, New York.

Klassen, M. (2022). Spline modeling of audio signals and cycle interpolation. In *Proceedings of MCM 2022, Mathematics and Computation in Music, LNCS 13267*, New York. Springer.

Klassen, M. and Lanthier, P. (2022). Design of timbre with cellular automata and b-spline interpolation. In *Proceedings of the Sound and Music Computing Conference, SMC 2022*. Sound and Music Computing.

Luebke, D. (2003). *Level of Detail for 3D Graphics*. Morgan Kaufmann, Elsevier.

Park, H. and Lee, J.-H. (2007). B-spline curve fitting based on adaptive curve refinement using dominant points. *Computer-Aided Design*, 39:439–451.

10 APPENDIX

Here we summarize some facts about B -splines.

The B -spline functions can be defined with divided differences as:

$$\mathcal{B}_i^d(t) = \alpha(d, i)[t_i, t_{i+1}, \dots, t_{i+d+1}](t - x)_+^d$$

with constant $\alpha(d, i)$ defined as

$$\alpha(d, i) = (-1)^{d+1}(t_{i+d+1} - t_i),$$

or using the (de Boor-Cox) recursion formula as

$$\mathcal{B}_i^d(t) = \frac{t - t_i}{t_{i+d} - t_i} \mathcal{B}_i^{d-1}(t) + \frac{t_{i+d+1} - t}{t_{i+d+1} - t_{i+1}} \mathcal{B}_{i+1}^{d-1}(t)$$

with base case:

$$\mathcal{B}_i^0(t) = 1, t_i \leq t < t_{i+1}, 0, \text{ elsewhere.}$$

We compute values of the B -spline functions, or of the interpolating spline f , with nested linear interpolation, known as the de Boor algorithm:

First, set $c_i^0 = c_i$ for $i = 0, \dots, n-1$. Next for $t \in [0, 1]$ choose J so that $t \in [t_J, t_{J+1})$. Then for $p = 1, 2, 3$, for $i = J-3+p, \dots, J$, set:

$$c_i^p = \frac{t - t_i}{t_{i+3-(p-1)} - t_i} c_i^{p-1} + \frac{t_{i+3-(p-1)} - t}{t_{i+3-(p-1)} - t_i} c_{i-1}^{p-1}$$

Finally, the output is $f(t) = c_J^3$. Also note: to solve for the coefficients

$$c_i, i = 0, \dots, n-1,$$

we set up the interpolation problem as a linear system by requiring that $f(t)$ agrees with the audio output data $x(t)$ (for the basic model) or $x(t) - p(t)$ for the delta model at each of the n input values. Since the input values are evenly distributed, we are guaranteed a unique solution, according to the Schoenberg-Whitney Theorem on B -spline interpolation (see (de Boor, 1980) chapter XIII, page 171).